

Current Trends in Higher Education 1948

Official Group Reports
of the
THIRD ANNUAL
NATIONAL CONFERENCE
ON HIGHER EDUCATION

Held at Chicago, Illinois
March 22-25

1948

Sponsored by

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION
National Education Association of the United States

ERRATA

Page 37, item 5, beginning line 4, should read; "There is no evidence that student charges will generally be decreased in the near future."

Page 81, final paragraph, beginning line 2, should read; "It is the function of the teacher to persuade the student that such implications are apposite to the life of man and society,".

Current Trends in Higher Education 1948

OFFICIAL GROUP REPORTS
OF THE THIRD ANNUAL

National Conference on Higher Education

HELD AT CHICAGO, ILLINOIS
MARCH 22-25, 1948

Edited by Ralph W. McDonald
and James L. McCaskill

Department of Higher Education
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES
WASHINGTON, D. C.

June 1948

**COPYRIGHT, 1948, BY
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES**

**\$2.00 per copy
Subject to following discounts:
2-9 copies, 10%; 10-99 copies,
25%; 100 or more, 33 1/3%.**

**Permission is granted to quote any of the
matter contained herein, on condition that
proper credit is given to the source.**

Contents

Foreword	Page
	5
<i>Chapter</i>	
PART I. FINANCE	
I. Cost Trends in Higher Education.....	W. Lyle Willbise 7
II. State Finance and Higher Education.....	C. S. Ball 13
III. Federal Aid for Higher Education.....	James L. McCaskill 20
IV. Gifts and Endowment Funds.....	Henry Steffens 27
V. Tuition and Student Fees.....	Charles A. Seidle 33
PART II. STUDENT PERSONNEL	
VI. Reappraisal of Enrollment Trends and Implications	
	John W. Bunn 39
VII. Selective Admission Policies and Procedure.....	George D. Small 46
VIII. Student Organization and Student Activities.....	A. Blair Knapp 55
IX. Meeting the Special Needs of Veterans	
	Reverend John J. Lane, C.S.C. 64
PART III. CURRICULUM	
X. The Coordination of Professional and General Education	
	Markham Peacock, Jr. 71
XI. General Education in the Liberal Arts College.....	Hoys Trowbridge 85
XII. General Education for the Prospective Teacher	
	Warren C. Lovinger 93
XIII. Adaptation of Curriculum and Teaching to Contemporary Issues	
	Robert H. Moore 100
XIV. College Programs of Less Than Four Years—the Community College	B. Lamar Johnson 107
XV. Adult and Off-Campus Programs.....	J. O. Keller 114
PART IV. FACULTY	
XVI. Evaluation and Improvement of Teaching in Service	
	P. C. Weaver 123
XVII. Faculty Salaries, Retirement, and Welfare Provisions	
	E. T. McSwain 131
XVIII. Preparation of College Teachers.....	Ruth E. Eckert 137

PART V. ORGANIZATION

XIX. Coordination of Facilities through Statewide and Regional Planning	<i>Joseph E. Gibson</i>	145
XX. Future of the Independent Liberal Arts College.....	<i>E. C. Buckner</i>	154
XXI. Organization of the University for Administration and Development	<i>Walter R. Goetsch</i>	160
XXII. College and University Public Relations.....	<i>Robert L. McKinney</i>	167

PART VI. APPENDIX

A. Resolutions	173
B. Consolidated Conference Program.....	178
C. History of The National Conference on Higher Education.....	180
D. List of Participants.....	181

LIST OF TABLES AND GRAPHS

Table

Page

I. Enrollments in Colleges and Universities in 1947, and Estimated Enrollments for Selected Years from 1948 through 1960.....	16
II. Estimated Enrollments in Fall Terms, 1948 through 1960.....	43
III. Estimated Enrollments in Fall Terms, 1948 through 1960 (graph)	43
IV. Anticipated Changes from 1947 Enrollments, 1948 and 1950.....	44

Foreword

THE third National Conference on Higher Education brought together faculty and administration leaders from all sections of the United States, from all types of accredited colleges and universities, representing all departments, branches, and fields of American higher education. Working intensively in twenty-two round table study groups throughout the four days of the conference, the 560 participants considered major problems facing higher education in 1948 and the years immediately ahead.

The purpose of the conference was to consider the current situation in American colleges and universities, to examine available data and comparative experiences, to anticipate problems for the immediate future, and to formulate findings and recommendations which might be helpful to those responsible for policy and practice in higher education.

The studies centered upon specific issues and questions which had been identified as foci of concern among the college faculties of the country. The actual agenda for the study groups were derived from suggestions which had been sent to the planning committee by thousands of leaders in higher education.

Two addresses, presented by O. C. Carmichael and Alonzo F. Myers, keynoted the conference as a whole. Specialized keynote addresses were presented to the five sections of the conference by recognized authorities in the respective fields: Finance; Student Personnel; Curriculum and Teaching; Faculty; and Organization. The addresses were mimeographed and widely distributed immediately following the conference. Space limitation prevents their inclusion in this volume. Individual copies of the addresses may be secured upon request.

Following the intensive group study, reports were prepared by the official recorders of the respective groups. The group reports constitute the major portion of this volume.

The pages which follow, therefore, present the gist of careful thinking as higher education looks ahead in the United States.

R. W. McD.

1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest
Washington, D. C.

PART I. FINANCE

Cost Trends in Higher Education

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP A¹

W. Lyle Willhite

*Chairman, Department of Economics and Business Administration,
Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois*

ONE of the most important current problems in higher education in America is that of cost trends. The future of these trends has been a subject of extensive speculation and forecasting, and it hinges on many other factors, both assumed and real, in the complete picture. If it is assumed that our nation is to undergo another critical period in domestic and international affairs, any projection of past or present trends into the future becomes an impossibility. On the other hand, if it is assumed that our nation is to continue on a peace time economy, then the value of an investigation of past and present cost trends is extremely great.

"Research in educational finance has shown that the quantity and quality of the educational program are closely related to the level of expenditure."² The trend of costs is, therefore, very important and must be examined from the standpoint of overall costs, as well as from the viewpoint of the specifics involved in the segmented costs included in the total picture. Expenditures must be classified in order to understand developments as they have occurred. Cost factors of an internal nature must be studied in conjunction with the external factors affecting costs. Measures of trends, of types of costs, and of total costs must be attempted for the short run period and for the longer intervals of time, if those involved in educational pursuits are to realize and be informed on the problems that lie ahead.

The direction of the trend of overall costs during the past several years has been upward.³ Part of this rise has been due to an increasing price level, and part has been caused by the need for expanded facilities to carry on the educational program. The predictions of the number of students who will attend institutions of higher education in the future years vary somewhat, but only with some knowledge of recent cost trends will colleges and universities be able to predicate future action as situations change.

¹ Group A operated under the chairmanship of J. A. Franklin, treasurer, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

² "Financing Higher Education." *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. V, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, December 1947, p. 10.

³ The average cost per student in 1940 for the entire United States amounted to approximately \$375. In 1947 the average cost was approximately \$470.

Personal Service Costs⁴

Personal services rendered by the teaching and non-teaching staffs account for 75 to 80 percent of the total costs of higher education after excluding expenditures for auxiliary services.

Instructional staff costs—The instructional staff costs account for approximately 50 to 60 percent of the total cost of higher education, or about two-thirds of the personal service costs. The proportion expended on teaching personnel has risen approximately 35 to 45 percent since the pre-war period, the variation in figures depending on the location of the institution involved and the constancy of income.

Many colleges and universities have made cost-of-living adjustments in the remuneration of their teaching personnel. It is significant to note that the percent increases in instructional staff cost does not equate the index of the rise of the cost of living. If national income remains high and new sources of income are developed, there is a possibility of further salary increases, for the remuneration of the teaching personnel is governed by the funds available at the present time and the prospects for future income from various sources. The introduction and maintenance of salary schedules brings into the picture the element of the creation of classified minimum salaries below which instructional costs cannot fall. If the schedules involve automatic increases within the various classifications, costs for the future can be predicted with some degree of certainty. Variations may arise, however, due to the entrance and exit of faculty members on the various levels. Merit increases within an instructional level, or from one classification to another, tend to give greater latitude to variation in these costs than does an automatic schedule based mainly on time served.

The general trend in most colleges and universities since the war has been toward more classes of larger size, thus decreasing the per-student instructional cost in these classes but not necessarily decreasing the absolute overall costs. The average class size has not changed greatly, but there have been great variations dependent on the educational philosophy and financial policy of the individual institutions. It may be observed that if predictions of decreases in enrollments become realities, adjustments in instructional staff costs cannot be made immediately and hence classes will be smaller and instructional costs per student will increase. The bulge in enrollments, due to veterans, as it moves to the junior, senior, and graduate levels will tend to increase the cost of instruction.

The number of students per teacher varies greatly from institution to institution and partly depends upon the teaching load. The variance between

⁴In order to make the following statements readily comparable with other reports, the study group used the major expenditure classifications recommended by the National Committee on Standard Reports.

institutions greatly affects the cost factor. In general it has been found that the average weekly teaching load in larger colleges and universities varies from ten to twelve hours per week, and there is extensive pressure for the lowering of loads in order to allow more time for personal research by faculty members. Smaller educational institutions meet the cost trend by having their teaching personnel carry heavier loads. If the overall trend becomes one of smaller numbers of hours combined with smaller classes, the result must be higher instructional costs.

Those institutions giving academic work leading to advanced degrees have been able to lower their instructional costs in the elementary undergraduate levels through the use of graduate assistants. This practice affords a mutual benefit to the parties involved. If there should be an extensive development of the junior college movement, it may be impossible to lower costs through the use of such graduate students due to the greater need for upper level courses of a more expensive type and a decreased demand for lower level courses in the four-year colleges and universities.

A factor related to the instructional staff cost that looms increasingly larger in colleges and universities is that of higher retirement allowances combined with lower retirement ages. The decreasing purchasing power of the dollar as it is reflected in higher prices emphasizes the need for more substantial payments for those who reach retirement status. The group believes that a continuing upward trend of costs in our economy will necessitate greater contributions in this area. Another contributing factor will be the problem created by sabbatical leaves that have been deferred during the past seven years because of the war and the resulting emergencies. Unless there is a decline in enrollments it may be expected that added costs will be incurred in this area.

Unfortunately for colleges and universities, there are few aspects of the instructional staff situation to suggest that the trend of costs will be downward. A decline in enrollments will not cause a decreased cost in the short run, although such might be the result over a longer period of time. If a depression should produce an increasing enrollment or continued heavy enrollment, that would tend to keep down the per-student instructional cost; however, it would tend to keep up or increase the overall cost of operation of the institution. An extensive preparedness program might suddenly reduce student enrollment, thereby increasing per-student instructional cost but again reducing overall expenditure for operating institutions.

The development of new or changed instructional methods or techniques could aid in reducing costs. There is a great need for the development and continuance of national and regional studies in this area. The competitive salaries being offered by agencies such as business organizations and government make it impossible for salaries of the teaching personnel to be

decreased in the near future, if academic institutions of higher levels are to remain fully staffed. If salaries cannot be lowered the alternative to combat rising costs is increased efficiency or substantial increase in institutional income from sources not available at present.

Non-teaching Staff.—The non-teaching staff remuneration represents approximately 25 percent of the total cost, or about one-third of the personal service cost in institutions of higher learning. The remuneration of this general group has increased more rapidly than has the pay of the teaching personnel. The trend of the increase has followed closely that of the cost-of-living index. There has been a rather widespread differential in this area, however, due to differences in the location of educational institutions in various national geographical areas and in urban and rural communities. In urban areas the pay of this group has increased as much as 50 percent or more. There have been a number of reasons for this trend.

1. In general, there has been an increased need for the maintenance of various types of records, such as those for governmental agencies, and for the increased number of students enrolled in the institutions.

2. In many areas there has been a shortage of student help and potential employees from the community. The shortage of student help has resulted from the number who are receiving various types of aid, also from the increase of employment opportunities in college communities. Increased employment opportunities have also meant that colleges and universities must pay higher rates for such employees as clerks, stenographers, and building and grounds employees.

3. Organized labor has exerted an upward pressure on some of the wages of the non-teaching personnel. This has happened primarily in urban communities.

4. In many cases the instructional staffs have demanded and received more non-teaching clerical and grading assistance.

If the cost of living continues upward, some further adjustments will be necessary for these classifications of employees. While the overall cost of this group has been rising, yet the cost per student of the non-teaching staff is, at the present time, less than it was in 1940, because of larger enrollments and the more extensive use of facilities. If enrollments begin to decline in the near future it may be expected that the per-student cost will increase. It is hoped that an increase in efficiency from this group will offset some of the increased cost.

Supplies and Materials

Supplies and materials form from 12 to 15 percent of the total cost of the operation of institutions of higher education. Although the actual increase in the cost of supplies and materials is approximately 100 percent

above 1940, with 20 percent of this increase occurring in the past year, savings due to increased enrollment and deferral of maintenance in some institutions have kept this expense down to a level comparable with instructional cost. If there is relief from the burden of enrollment, and if time, funds, and working personnel are available, it will be necessary to spend added funds to bring physical facilities and plant maintenance to a higher level.

Equipment, Replacement and Repairs

Equipment, replacements, and repairs represent from 10 to 12 percent of the total cost of institutions of higher education. The rehabilitation of equipment and buildings at the presently inflated prices will take a long period of time. Although educational institutions have benefited from the allocation of surplus property, it was felt by the group that the poor quality of equipment produced during the war and postwar period will increase the annual upkeep and replacement costs during the coming years.

Construction costs do not affect the current operational expenditures in most institutions, but it is significant to note that the January 1, 1948, index of these costs is 134 percent over that of 1939, and there is no evidence pointing toward a reduction in the near future.

Miscellaneous

Many factors, aside from those previously mentioned, affect cost trends. The demands for new and increased programs in various areas are becoming important in the finances of institutions of higher education. A few of these items deserve special mention.

1. Government research has not been self-sustaining in the past several years. If this program is expanded, it will become more costly to the institutions involved unless ample reimbursement is provided.

2. The per-student expenditure for libraries is still inadequate, even though the overall trend is upward. There is a definite need for the provision of more adequate facilities of this type if educational instruction and research are to be placed on the desired level.⁵

3. Colleges and universities are recognizing the need for better counselling, guidance, and testing in order to give students improved personnel services.

4. Improved programs of health, activity, and recreation are needed.

5. New fields such as radio, physical and health education, and audio-visual training are offering improvements in our educational program, but they also involve increased costs.

The group investigated the possibilities involved in reducing costs for

⁵ "Financing Higher Education." *Higher Education for American Democracy*. Vol. V, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, December 1947, p. 16.

educational institutions through the establishment and maintenance of centralized purchasing agencies. It was discovered that a number of different methods are being used but that savings in costs could be obtained through a maximum centralization of purchasing, storing, and the handling of accounts. Several practices in centralized purchasing were indicated as having raised specific problems. It has been the experience of a number of institutions that all purchases except food and small, highly technical equipment, can be handled by a centralized purchasing agency at lower costs. State institutions have found this device somewhat more cumbersome, but a method which reduces costs. Centralized purchasing is considered as being one method for the lowering of costs if such a system is not already in use.

Conclusions

Conference Group A considering "Cost Trends in Higher Education" has found that there are few areas of operational or other costs in which the trend during the past several years has not been upward. The future trend of these costs cannot be definitely predicted due to their dependence on variations in the price level, the possible effects of external elements such as national and international affairs, and the effects of other economic factors upon student enrollments. The deliberations of the group were based on conditions as they existed at the time, and any future changes would vary future prospects. The general opinion of the members of the Group was that there is very little possibility that the immediate cost trend in the future will be downward.

It is imperative that each educational institution study both its short run and long run programs in view of the cost problems which may arise. Higher education has been and is such a vital part of our whole American system that it is necessary that it be maintained on a high plane. There must be a continued investment in the maintenance of present educational facilities and the creation of new ones. Adequate educational facilities and competent personnel must be available when needed if progress is to continue. The very life of the nation depends upon constant advancement through the training of the younger generation.

Historically, higher education has been conducted on a fairly low cost level. As a consequence of this fact, the rising trend, especially during recent years, has been felt more severely than it has been felt in industry and business where prices could be varied and income increased more easily. The increased costs must be met, even if they continue to rise, in order that our system of higher education may continue to progress toward the goals to which it aspires.

State Finance and Higher Education

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP B¹

C. S. Ball

*Finance Secretary, University of South Dakota
Vermillion, South Dakota*

SINCE the turn of the century, higher education in America has come to assume a position of far-reaching importance in the entire fabric of our country. Indeed, it is not too much to say that the future of higher education and the future of democratic America are inseparably entwined. This vital role of higher education in American life has brought with it tremendous problems that challenge every area in which institutions of higher learning operate. Chief among these is the inescapable problem of financial support of education in an age of continued growth and increasing costs. This phase of the total problem was the chief concern of Group B.

The growth record of higher education since 1900 is startling. In that year the enrollment in our colleges and universities was 238,000. In 1940 this number had expanded to 1,500,000. With the demobilization of military forces after World War II, American youth in greater numbers than ever before enrolled in institutions of higher learning, crowding them to bulging proportions. In this spring of 1948 it is estimated that the total collegiate enrollment has exceeded 2,300,000. The President's Commission estimates that in 1960 there will be enrolled in American colleges and universities 4,600,000, or approximately double the unprecedented number now enrolled.

Of the 1,700 institutions of higher learning in the country, 331 are state-supported. A little more than half of the huge 1948 enrollment is being handled by these publicly-supported schools. In 1940 the bill for operating all institutions of higher learning was a half billion dollars. In 1947 this cost was a little more than a billion dollars. Although this figure is but a fraction of the national income, it indicates the size of the outlay that has been made in our colleges and universities for capital investment, maintenance, and operating costs.

The marshalling of figures, percents, and projected figures constitutes an impressive, even startling exercise. Of far greater significance for the future, however, is the stark necessity for an intelligent and frank answer to the questions posed by growing financial needs.

¹ Group B operated under the chairmanship of Harvey H. Davis, vice president, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

The Size of the Task To Be Financed by the State

This year, for the first time in history, the number of students enrolled in state institutions of higher learning is more than half of the total college enrollment. It is obvious, therefore, that there has been a shift of enrollment from privately-controlled institutions to those under public control. This fact suggests several questions: What are the causes of this trend? Will the shift continue?—and, Can the curve be predicted with any reliability?

It is apparent, when one seeks causes for the tremendous gain in the enrollment of publicly-supported schools, that an emphasis on vocational goals is high on the list. Students are definitely interested in vocational courses and major fields, many of which are more widely offered in public institutions. It is apparent also that there is a demand for more practical courses which are not available at present. Furthermore, the cost of attending a public institution is lower than that of a privately-supported school. In 1946 the average charges of public institutions to resident students varied from \$84 per year in agriculture to \$331 in medicine. In the same year, private institutions were charging fees varying from \$266 in the junior college to \$526 in medicine. Although the cost is lower for the student, public institutions of higher learning face a task greater than ever before in obtaining the necessary funds for capital expansion.

Finally, the same inflationary trends which have produced a price spiral in all commodities have contributed directly to higher costs in all educational services. This higher cost has caused many private schools to limit their enrollments. Large numbers of students have then turned to state-supported schools where arbitrary limitation of enrollment is not easily applied. Since there was no representative of a small private school in this group, no discussion was held about the degree to which these conclusions apply in a comparison of large and small private institutions.

In general, it was the consensus of Group B that the present trend toward higher enrollments in public institutions will continue, and that the future curve can be drawn with reasonable reliability.

The large number of students and the high costs of operation justifiably raise the question of how far the state should plan ahead for its system of higher education. California and Ohio are already planning ahead to 1965 and 1972, respectively. Because college enrollments are increased two and a half times every twenty years, and birth rate figures are available over a similar span of years, the study group recommends a twenty-year planning period.

Is competition for enrollment likely to develop between publicly and privately-supported institutions? In certain areas there has already developed evidence of some competition. The group concluded that the competitive

situation which existed during the depression and World War II would not repeat itself in the future. The chief reason for this conclusion was the feeling that the federal government and other agencies would probably provide aid for students to attend colleges of their choice, either public or private.

What, basically, is the responsibility of a state government in providing facilities for higher education? It was pointed out that in the California Junior College System, for example, financial support came from the following sources: (1) student fees, (2) local taxes, (3) state taxes, (4) philanthropy, and (5) federal aid on an equalized basis. All members admitted that the state has a definite responsibility, but the crux of the matter is, how should the state discharge its responsibility? As another illustration of the cost factor, the physical plant of the Chicago Medical Center was shown to be approximately \$50,000 per student. The group concluded that the state, in order to be commensurate to the problem, should provide educational facilities for citizenship and leadership in the higher levels and produce an adequate supply of professionally educated people.

The possibility of establishing regional facilities for expensive professional education was considered by the group, and a committee was appointed to formulate a resolution regarding the needs for, and the methods of training professional personnel. It was suggested that state responsibility for professional education should not only include scholarships, but also living costs.

To what extent should the state share in the cost of community public colleges? It was agreed that the state and local communities should share in the support of education in the thirteenth and fourteenth years, the proportion to be determined by the legal and financial situations in the different states. As to the state's contribution to privately-controlled institutions of higher learning, the opinion of the group was negative.

The conclusion reached was that the enrollment estimates made by the President's Commission on Higher Education would provide a basis for making plans for future educational needs.

The enrollment figures secured from Group F provide a sound basis for a reappraisal of enrollment trends and implications. See Table 1.

Sources of State Revenue for Financing All State Activities

Increasing demands on state finances for an expanding list of social and public services have added to the problem of financing higher education. Among these demands are such widely accepted projects as social security, old age pensions, unemployment compensation, and retirement funds.

The payment of bonuses to World War II veterans by the various states was recognized as a factor of considerable significance in the overall finan-

TABLE I. ENROLLMENTS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN 1947,
AND ESTIMATED ENROLLMENTS FOR SELECTED YEARS
FROM 1948 THROUGH 1960

<i>Enrollment in Fall Term</i>			
<i>Year</i>	<i>Veterans</i>	<i>Non-Veterans</i>	<i>Total</i>
1947	1,200,000	1,138,226	2,338,226
1948	950,000	1,250,000	2,200,000
1949	700,000	1,300,000	2,000,000
1950	600,000	1,300,000	1,900,000
1952	400,000	1,400,000	1,800,000
1955	150,000	1,750,000	1,900,000
1960	none	2,500,000	2,500,000

cial pattern of the states during the next few years. In most instances, a bonus will be paid through debt financing, and the total amounts involved will be large. In South Dakota, the voters will determine passage of the proposition for a state bonus at the general election in November. If the bonus is approved, it will subsequently mean an indebtedness of approximately \$30,000,000 and will be a factor in the amounts available for expenditure for all public services. Passage of this bill could mean that unless additional sources of revenue could be tapped, higher education in South Dakota and similar states might receive inadequate support.

In considering what plans states are now making to meet the financial problems incident to the future loss of revenue from the education of veterans, this group found little evidence that anything was being done. Without question, this is a matter which merits immediate and serious attention in every state.

If additional sources of revenue for higher education are to be found, what are the possibilities? Some suggestions are:

1. Increased tuition charges
2. Gifts for endowment or current expense
3. Income from patents
4. Income from research contracts
5. Income from federal subsidies
6. Income from by-products of research, experimental work, and incidental activities.

Group B views with alarm the proposal of Congress to tax income on revenue and producing properties of colleges and universities, and the group recommends a vigorous opposition by all institutions of higher learning.

At the present time, the major sources of state revenue from which appropriations for higher education are obtained are property taxes, income taxes, and sales taxes. Some states use all three, and some states use only one or

two of these tax sources. It seems apparent that in order to provide an adequate tax structure for the future, more and more reliance will have to be placed on all three of these sources. Other sources of revenue which are of varying importance in the states are excises, severance taxes, inheritance taxes, and licenses. By far the largest producer of revenue, however, is the sales tax in its various forms.

The entire tax structure of a state is as important as the particular tax rates in operation at a given time. The tax pattern is a very large field, and one which is not often explored, since it is easier to deal with particular taxes. While some states have appointed tax research groups or commissions, little has been done to give many state tax systems a much-needed overhauling.

Is it advisable to earmark certain state revenue for higher education? Current state support for higher education comes chiefly from general revenue funds, and in the opinion of Group B, this support should continue to come from these general funds, rather than from earmarked funds.

The Share of State Revenue Allotted to Higher Education

Since administrators of elementary and secondary schools are faced with the same perplexing question of adequate financial support, it is pertinent to ask what should be the policy of the state in its comparative support of elementary, secondary, and higher education. There was a time when the local community bore the entire burden of the cost of the first twelve years of school. The state had only the responsibility for higher education. Now there is a definite trend for the state to assume a larger share of responsibility for all areas of education, with a supplement of federal aid. The conference group was of the opinion that the state should continue to be primarily responsible for higher education, and that the state should assist as far as possible the support of a foundation program of elementary and secondary education.

Cognizance was taken of the fact that there are wide variations between states in their efforts to maintain higher education. This is shown in the percent of total income spent for higher education compared to other costs. Obviously, the public at large has not been fully informed, and in some respects, old prejudices have not been broken down. There is an urgent need for adequate publicity of educational matters. It should be apparent that adult education programs offer a natural medium for informing the public of the needs and responsibilities of higher education.

It is of the utmost importance that all those working in elementary, secondary, and higher education present a united front in seeking adequate state support for the total cause of education. Interested organizations, such as the Parent-Teachers Association, can be of positive assistance. Group B

recommends that every state unify the forces concerned with education. These forces should not be competitive, but should make their common goal the advancement of the state's greatest resource—its boys and girls.

Candidly speaking, the whole cause of education needs and merits a sound and effective public relations program. The use of bulletins presenting pertinent information and current facts is a simple device too often overlooked. The needs of education will never be hurt by telling the people the story—simply, directly, and honestly. It is an indictment of much of our educational leadership on all levels that a distressingly large number of people either have no information, or have misinformation, about our schools. Faculty members can effectively contribute to desirable public relations, particularly by supplying information. The participation of faculty members, however, must be carefully planned, in order to avoid their being misunderstood.

We have reached the time when the creation of a national organization geared directly to problems of financial support is worthy of serious consideration. It is possible, however, that because of wide variations in our states, both in tradition and in law, creation of a new organization may not be desirable. In any event, it is most probable that the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association could effectively supply the need for a common source of financial information. This possibility was not discussed by the group, but the present writer is convinced that a central information service would prove invaluable.

The proposed *Bulletin for Higher Education*, similar to *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXV, No. 4, December 1947, would be helpful in improving public relations. There is a pressing need for a common source of wide information for comparative purposes. At the present time, much-needed information is widely scattered, and while it is extremely helpful when obtained, it is not readily accessible. For example, the Central Association of Business Officers makes a tuition and fee study; Idaho has made a study of faculty salaries in state universities; and Kansas State has made a study of room and board charges. It seems to the writer that the Department of Higher Education could render an invaluable service if it could report complete institutional information and tax data patterned after *Tax Systems* published by Commerce Clearing House. Such information would be most serviceable if it could be placed in the hands of the responsible head of each institution prior to the regular meetings of the state legislatures.

Problems of Administration of State Funds Allotted to Higher Education

The relationship of institutions of higher learning to state officials responsible for budgeting and expenditure control is very important. Group B

agreed, in the discussions of this point, that appropriations to higher educational institutions should be free to be expended without interference from noneducational agencies or divisions.

The group took notice of the fact that there is some variation among the states with regard to single and multiple boards in controlling educational institutions. The members reached the conclusion that a movement in the direction of a single board for all higher education in a state was highly desirable.

Conclusion

It is not possible to recount in a brief summary such as this the complete discussion which took place in Group B. The following recommendations are presented as worthy of particular consideration and study by all those who are concerned with the future problems of higher education:

1. That the *NEA* devote some of its activities toward producing a bulletin for higher education including the need for, and the method of, providing for the training of physicians, dentists, etc., similar to *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXV, No. 4, December 1947.

2. That the Department of Higher Education gather, tabulate, and disseminate pertinent statistics and complete information applicable to institutions of higher learning.

3. That the state have primary responsibility in supporting higher education and assist local units in support of a foundation program of elementary and secondary education.

4. That every state seek to unify those forces which are concerned with education at the various levels, both professional and nonprofessional.

The members of Group B lay no claim to superior wisdom, nor do they pretend to possess the answers to the riddles of higher education now being faced in a powerful and complex age. It is, however, of the utmost importance that we keep trying to find the answers, for the future of America is at stake. The prize to be won is a richer and fuller life for all America.

Federal Aid for Higher Education

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP C¹

James L. McCaskill

Director of Public Relations, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida

THE policy of federal aid to the states for educational purposes began in the earliest period of American history and has developed and expanded over a period of more than one hundred and sixty years. The historical development of this policy has been so thoroughly presented in two recent publications that only a brief review of the most significant phases need be dealt with here.

Beginning with the Ordinance of 1785 and closing with the passage of the 1945 Amendment to the Bankhead-Jones Act, *One Hundred and Sixty Years of Federal Aid to Education*, traces the enactment of federal legislation providing assistance to the states for the support of public education.²

Volume V of the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education provides a history of federal aid to education with major emphasis upon assistance to higher education.³

The following brief history of federal aid to the states for educational purposes draws heavily upon the two sources mentioned above in an attempt to cover the significant developments in federal aid to all levels of education.

Development of Federal Policy

The policy of federal aid for education began with the thirteen original colonies setting aside grants of land for the support of the common schools. This policy grew out of the early realization that free public education could not be provided through local and state support alone. Thus the federal government began giving grants—first land grants, and later, monetary grants—to add to the local and state support of public education.

Equally early in its history the federal government provided some financial assistance to higher educational institutions. Such assistance was granted to individual institutions intermittently with no well-defined plan such as that included under the land grants of the Northwest Ordinances of 1785 and 1787.

¹ Group C operated under the chairmanship of Robert E. McConnell, president, Central Washington College of Education, Ellensburg, Washington. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

² National Education Association of the United States. *One Hundred and Sixty Years of Federal Aid to Education*. July 1946, p. 1, 12.

³ "Financing Higher Education." *Higher Education for American Democracy*. Vol. V, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, December 1947, p. 52, 54.

Under the policy of federal grants in general aid to public education, control of the schools was reserved exclusively for the states and the local communities and in all matters relating to federal aid to the states for general educational purposes the principle of state and local control over education has been adhered to rigidly.

The Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862 marks the first change in federal educational policy. Grants in aid to general education with no direction over the use of the funds began to change to grants in aid to specifically stated areas of education. The Morrill Act set aside a grant of land in each state, proceeds from the sale or lease of the land to be used to support at least one college in each state whose main subjects would be "agriculture and the mechanic arts", with some attention devoted to the teaching of military science. Congress has passed subsequent legislation increasing the money provided each year to land-grant colleges and universities, and adding other areas to those specified in the original act. Altho the Morrill legislation provides only fiscal control over specified areas of education, which does not seem to be objectionable, it marks the beginning of a divergent policy which is characterized by federal aid for specific areas of education.

The passage of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917 marked another turning point in federal aid policy. This Act and subsequent legislation of a similar nature provides funds for promoting the development of vocational training in the public schools and for encouraging special education for teachers of vocational subjects. The exacting requirements upon the states in the use of these funds seems to indicate that the trend in policy is toward more and more federal control where aid is granted to specified areas of education. A careful consideration of our national experience leads to the conclusion that federal control follows federal aid only when authorized in the law and that such control does not follow when the law forbids.

Prior to the depression of the 1930's, the federal government had provided only a very minor portion of the total costs of education. Several types of emergency or temporary programs begun at that time provided direct or indirect federal aid to education at all levels. The public works programs of the Works Progress Administration and the Public Works Administration; the development of the Civilian Conservation Corps; and the work scholarship program of the National Youth Administration provided vastly increased participation of the federal government in the support of education. These and similar federal programs unquestionably influenced the whole pattern of financing higher education.

The impact of World War II upon the American social structure resulted in further expansion of the relationships between the federal government and education. The development of contractual arrangements under which the federal government paid educational institutions for the training of

military and civilian personnel, for research projects, and for other national emergency services was a product of World War II. Under the educational provisions of the G. I. Bill and the Rehabilitation Act, the federal government has provided a subsidy of education in which the majority of educational institutions participate. In order to assist schools and colleges in providing necessary expansion to meet the vastly increased postwar enrollments the government has permitted the donation or sale at nominal cost of instructional equipment and facilities, temporary housing, and other facilities for the use of veteran students.

Although these programs all have left a permanent impression on the whole financial structure of higher education it must be noted that they do not involve continuing federal relationships with higher education and like the emergency programs of the depression period were formulated and operated upon the basis of temporary expediency.

From careful study of the most recent developments in federal aid relationships with education come the following conclusions:

1. The general policy established out of more than a century of national experience has been in large measure disregarded in the formulation of programs to meet educational needs affecting the national welfare and extending beyond the responsibilities or means of the state.
2. Most of these programs have affected the financial pattern and policy of American education.
3. All of the programs have implications of permanent importance to the future development of American education.
4. Discontinuance of programs without regard to permanent influence on policy affecting federal relationships with education may mean irreparable damage to education.
5. A sound pattern of continuing federal support of education must be developed before the present temporary programs expire.
6. This pattern should include general federal aid to elementary and secondary education and federal aid for higher education to be provided primarily for the purpose of equalizing educational opportunity.

Recommendations

The point of view expressed in the foregoing statements is not new to the Department of Higher Education. Long-established legislative policy of this department has included support of general federal aid to public elementary and secondary schools, as well as federal aid to higher education for several purposes. Assuming that this point of view is valid and that the evidence contained in numerous studies and reports establishes the necessity for federal aid to education, it is recommended:

1. That provision be made for equalizing upward educational opportunity on the elementary and secondary school levels through federal grants to the several states.

2. That federal aid for higher education be provided primarily for the purpose of further equalizing educational opportunity.

3. That federal aid for higher education include assistance for educational and general purposes, for capital outlay, for the establishment of a national program of scholarships and fellowships, and for research.

Direct Grants in Aid

It is the belief of the members of conference Group C that the facts, figures, and analyses presented in numerous recent studies and reports are conclusive evidence of the necessity for federal aid to higher education, primarily for the purpose of equalizing educational opportunity. Aid in the form of direct grants to institutions should be for both current educational expenditures and for capital outlay not self-liquidating in character.

Opinion in the group was divided as to the desirability of limiting federal aid, in the form of direct grants, to public institutions to the exclusion of private colleges and universities. Those who agree with the recommendations of the President's Commission on Higher Education that direct grants should go only to publicly controlled institutions do so for the reasons enumerated in the report of the Commission. Among these are the necessity for public supervision of the expenditure of public funds to an extent which will inevitably tend to change the character of the private institution into a public institution; and the weakening of the system of public education which will follow from the diversion of public funds away from public channels. It is the firm belief of this group that it is neither possible nor desirable to expend public funds in the form of direct grants without some degree of public regulation.

Those who disagree with the recommendations of the President's Commission with respect to the channeling of direct grants only to publicly controlled institutions base their objections in large part on those given in the dissenting report to Volume V of the Report of the President's Commission.⁴ They do not agree that public control of an objectionable character would inevitably follow the direct grant of public funds to private institutions. They feel that "the criterion of a school's eligibility to receive federal funds should be based on its 'service to the public' and not 'public control.'" They further believe that the very existence of the private college and university as an important factor in American higher education will be menaced by a policy of federal aid from tax funds, limited to public institutions, on the theory that private institutions (with limited gifts and high fees) cannot under such conditions obtain sufficient funds or students to continue to operate.

While it is the belief of many that the extension upward of the program

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 68-69.

of free, public education to include the thirteenth and fourteenth grades, presents a problem no different in character than the establishment of the free public high school and that the elimination of tuition at this level is desirable and timely, there are others who doubt the wisdom of making the thirteenth and fourteenth grades entirely tuition-free in public institutions at the present time. The relatively high cost of such a program, the effect upon private institutions, and the questionable value of abandoning the requirement that the student pay some portion of the cost of higher education, combine to make such a recommendation seem premature.

The group was unanimous in agreeing that any direct federal grant be conditioned on a program under which the grant would be made available, in the several states, to all groups in the population on an equitable basis.

Scholarships and Fellowships

A common belief among many people is to the effect that any youth "who has what it takes" can get all of the education that he wants in the United States. It is doubtful if this has ever been true although there have been many exceptional youths who have overcome great difficulties, financial and otherwise, in order to complete a college education. The rising cost of higher education is only one of the factors that tends to make it increasingly difficult for many worthy American youths to secure education beyond high school. The number of men and women who are taking advantage of the educational benefits of the G. I. Bill is the strongest evidence of the need for a national scholarship program. Perhaps the greatest inequality of educational opportunity in this country is that which limits higher education, in the main, to those who are able to pay for it.

In order to make higher educational opportunity more nearly equal for all youth and consequently to develop what may be the "nation's greatest resource," the federal government should provide federal aid to the states for scholarships and fellowships to be awarded only to students of demonstrated ability whose families fall within stated income groups. Individual states should receive federal aid for scholarships on the basis of the state population within the age group fourteen to eighteen years inclusive, under the following conditions:

1. The same standardized tests should be administered nationally in every high school in each state. The published list consisting of the ranking students, double the number of the state quota, should be used as the basis for the appointment of scholarship students within each state.
2. Scholarship students should enroll as full-time students and for a period not to exceed four academic years.
3. Scholarship stipends should be given directly to the student. Stipends should be uniform in amount throughout the country. At present, \$750 for undergraduate scholarships, and \$1500 for graduate fellowships is sug-

gested. The student should receive this aid on a semester or quarter basis during the stated period of residence, and while meeting the academic requirements of the institution attended.

4. Institutions on a list approved by the state department of education or other state agency invested with comparable authority should be eligible to receive scholarship students. The same agency should provide guidance facilities and some method of regulating transfer of students.

Federal Loans

Long-term, low-interest federal loans should be made available to publicly or privately controlled higher institutions, provided these loans are for capital investment and not for operating expense. Federal assistance for expansion and reasonable replacement would seem to be sound policy depending upon the particular conditions in each case. Such loans should be restricted to non-profit institutions and to colleges and universities which provide a minimum standard of higher education.

Federal Financing of Research

The federal government is justified in granting funds to initiate or enlarge research conducted by the faculties of responsible higher institutions, public or private. There would seem to be a distinction, however, between the granting of funds to initiate or enlarge research conducted by the faculties of responsible institutions and the federal organization of research on a national or regional basis, directed by a federal agency. "Organized" research might be expected from federal influences, and there would be advantages in cooperative effort; but most fruitful research arises from the diverse curiosity of scholars in fields which they have made their own rather than from direction of effort by a central body to selected ends. Therefore the function of the federal government in this area should be to stimulate research and not to attempt to conduct or control it.

Federal Contracts with Higher Institutions

Federal contracts with agencies of higher education are, primarily, agreements between the federal government and higher institutions for purposes of national welfare. Under such contracts the federal government receives direct compensation for the expenditures which it makes.

In general, it is sound policy from the government point of view to utilize higher institutions because they possess at least a core of an organization and equipment, they are civilian rather than military bodies, and they operate under decentralized control. These advantages to the government accrue whether the institutions are supported from public or private funds. In order to obtain maximum result the government should award contracts on the basis of realizable immediate and long-run effectiveness of

the program of each institution dealt with, rather than upon formulae adapted to objectives of another sort.

Higher institutions also derive certain benefits from contracts entered into with the federal government. Members of the faculty are enabled to attack problems which would be beyond their reach otherwise, new opportunities for research may be made available to both faculty and graduate students, and the institution usually receives the satisfaction of making a direct contribution to a national necessity.

There are certain risks involved in the acceptance of federal contracts which should be recognized by higher institutions. It may happen that the efforts of their faculties would be diverted from sound educational purposes under the influence of outsiders who are not familiar with the objectives and conditions of the teaching program. University faculties and other personnel may be overburdened, at the expense of teaching and other non-contract programs. All of these are dangers which should be safeguarded before the contract is negotiated finally.

In the case of research contracts, it is essential that the proposed research project come within a field or fields for which an institution has or can acquire distinguished or thoroughly competent experts who can perform or supervise the required research or development. Properly administered such a policy should lead to a broadening of research facilities of the United States.

Guiding principles to be applied in the final determination of the desirability of any federal contract should include the requirement that the contract program contribute to the national welfare and be in keeping with the educational function of the institution and that the contractual project be beneficial to both the government and the higher institution.

Gifts and Endowment Funds

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP D¹

Henry Steffens

Treasurer, Hope College, Holland, Michigan

WITH rare exceptions privately controlled institutions of higher education in the United States have needed funds from sources other than student fees and tuition to continue their educational programs. Seldom has income from students been sufficient to finance the operating costs of these institutions to say nothing of providing vast sums for equipment and plant. Institutions of higher education, therefore, have depended directly upon the acquisition of private funds to meet operating deficits and to provide for plant and equipment.

In the past, the privately controlled institutions have benefited greatly from grants, gifts, and bequests. Indeed most private institutions would not be in existence today if it had not been for the gifts of philanthropists, both great and small. However, the trend in recent years has changed so that, currently, public institutions of higher education have been receiving the greater share of the total amounts given to educational institutions in general.

In addition, the recent trend shows that educational institutions as a whole have been receiving a lesser percent of the amount of total philanthropy, and also that contributions to educational institutions have been declining in relation to the national income. It is also interesting to note that during the last few years the total of philanthropic contributions for all purposes has been increasing in relation to the national income. It would therefore appear that the philanthropists have not the same interest in higher education as they had heretofore, or at least that the needs of other institutions and causes have appeared more pressing.

In view of these factors, it would appear well for privately controlled institutions of higher education to review their sources of gifts, their methods of soliciting money, and the use of funds presently being given and those given in the past, which now find themselves in the investment portfolios of the colleges and universities.

Institutions of higher learning are justified in making appeals for philanthropic support only if they are able and do provide an education of the character and quality that is completely deserving of support. This places

¹ Group D operated under the chairmanship of C. H. Gelger, president, North Central College, Naperville, Illinois. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

the responsibility upon the college of demonstrating that money spent on it will assist in providing an opportunity for young people that cannot be found elsewhere. It must be made evident to the philanthropist that in giving his money, the cause of higher education ranks with the great needs of our time.

The need for greater philanthropy in higher education in the immediate future becomes evident when one thinks of the increased enrollment of students, the increased cost of operations, and the decreased income per student from investment funds. Because of presently high student fees it would appear that for the most part colleges cannot look to that source for greater income. It would seem therefore that increased attention must be paid to the philanthropic sources.

Since gifts and the income from gifts are so important in the life of the college, the problem is essentially twofold: For one thing how stimulate and promote giving for operations, plant, equipment, and endowment; and second, how to use and invest gifts after they are received.

People give money to institutions of higher education for a variety of reasons. Many find in giving a feeling of personal gratification. With others it is a matter of personal or family distinction so the family name may be perpetuated. Gifts of thanksgiving may express themselves in memorials, scholarships, or prizes to deserving students. Many church related colleges have received gifts given with the idea of discharging a moral or religious obligation. With some it may be an aversion to paying taxes. This is a matter of public policy inasmuch as taxpayers may take credit up to 15 percent of their incomes in reporting for federal income tax purposes.

Before the institution can expect its appeal for gifts to be successful it must provide assurance of institutional inviolability to the giver, for without the knowledge that the purpose of his gift will be carried out little success can be expected. In addition, the prospective giver must have full knowledge of the needs of the college. Appeals can then be made and gifts promoted on the basis of the service contributed by the college to the community. Many colleges can make their appeal because of special projects or studies, the benefit of which will accrue to a community or society in general. Problems in public health are at present of special interest.

Church related colleges may make appeals because of service to the church in the training of lay and religious leaders, or because the institution is an integral part of the general church program.

In the past the appeals were made chiefly by the presidents and trustees of the colleges who presented the needs of their institutions to their friends of great wealth. However, incomes in this country have been leveled so that the philanthropy of the future must come from the lower income groups. That this is happening is supported by the fact that in 1941, 72 percent

of all philanthropy was contributed by persons with incomes of five thousand dollars or less.² It is to this group therefore that must be demonstrated not only the need of the institutions of higher education, but that the colleges and universities are worthy objects of philanthropy.

Because of the change in the source of philanthropy, institutions must in the future present their needs through public relations departments, well organized and well staffed. In general, the methods used will be such as to reach the person of average means. The radio, newspaper, pamphlets, and magazines are, and will be, increasingly used.

So as to effectively present their programs and needs, institutions of small means may be forced to take group action. This would enable them, by sharing costs, to secure a competent staff to carry on an efficient program.

Planning and development groups to determine the long term needs of the college would aim to keep potential givers adequately informed as to the policies and needs of the institution and would thus assist in preventing the recurrence of a series of crises which arise in the operations of many schools. This group could direct the emphasis of gifts knowing that in general it is easier to obtain funds for current operations, plant or equipment, than for investment funds.

For the present, at least, the trend in giving is away from endowments and towards current operations. Givers like to see the results of their gifts immediately. As a matter of policy the great foundations will no longer give for investment but rather to specific projects, the result of which is hoped will be of immediate good. It is increasingly difficult, therefore, for the small privately supported college to raise large sums for endowment.

Although the trend may be against it, the securing of funds for endowment is of great importance in college finance, and the management of endowment funds is of even greater importance for if persons of means are to contribute moneys at all for investment, they must be certain their gifts to endowment will result in a permanent income to the institution endowed. If the purpose of the fund is to be realized, prudential management is necessary so as to provide for the greatest income with the least possible risk. The controls set up for the administration of the fund and the policies formulated for the investment of the fund are the two problems paramount in the care and management of endowments.

Upon the board of trustees of the endowed college rests the final responsibility for the care and investment of the trust funds and this is one of the more important functions of the board. However, because boards of trustees as a general rule cannot assume actual investment and management responsibilities, they have delegated this function to others whose reporting

² Teachers College, Columbia University. *Financing the Future of Higher Education*. New York: Bureau of Publications, 1946. p. 140-141.

responsibilities lie directly to the board. This is accomplished in many ways. The president or the treasurer may have the function, or a committee of the board together with its officers. A corporate trustee may be employed, or all or part of the funds may be under the control and management of an organization within the church with which the college is associated. Investment counsels are employed by some colleges and combinations of these different agencies are responsible for the care of investment funds in many institutions of higher education.

The policies employed in the investment of trust funds are in general those employed in sound, conservative business. The general rules of priority, quality, marketability, and yield apply to trust investments as well as to others. The rule of prudence should be followed in avoiding certain type of investments as well as in making investments. Loans should not be made to trustees, or organizations operated by trustees, faculty or administrative officers of the college. Any transaction should be avoided if the institution would be embarrassed in commencing legal proceedings as part of its collection procedure. Loans from the endowment to other funds of the college are also questionable and it regretfully seems to be a practice quite widely followed in American universities and colleges.³

Tax exempt securities are as a general rule considered undesirable for endowment investments since the endowment is tax exempt. Prices of such securities are generally higher and the yield is less.

Government securities are held in some endowment funds with the thought that they will keep the fund liquid. This liquidity, it is thought, is necessary so cash may be obtained quickly when market conditions permit the purchase of a desirable security at a favorable price. However, most high grade bonds are generally marketable at good prices so it would appear that government bonds alone do not furnish liquidity. And inasmuch as the yield is low, it would appear that their place in the investment portfolio is questionable.

Because of the financial problems which colleges are expected to face in the immediate future, some institutions are reexamining funds now in the endowment, and if it is found that these originally were given without restriction as to principal, are setting these up as funds serving as endowment. This, it is argued, will permit their use for general purposes, in times of financial stress. The procedure is rationalized on the basis that the funds were originally given with the purpose of serving the institution and that in time of need this purpose is best served in this way. While it is true that gifts and bequests received without condition may be used both as to principal and income as the trustees decide, it is an exceedingly dangerous

³ See article by Russell and Reeves, "Needed Readjustments in Higher Education," Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Chap. XIII, p. 180-81.

practice to remove funds from the endowment once having been placed there by the board of trustees.⁴ The Board should never revoke any action placing funds in endowment for in addition to confusing the state of the fund, it will give credence to impressions that the endowment is not inviolate and as a result adversely affect the attitude of friends of the college.

In formulating investment policies several factors must be considered.

The risk must be diversified so as to restrict losses incurred because of adverse conditions in the management of a certain business, or any adverse condition in a type of business activity due either to economic or geographic conditions. This diversification of the risk should aim also at the stability of income.

Investments must be made in income producing securities. One of the purposes of the endowment fund is to act as an economic stabilizer and this function can be realized only if an attempt is made to derive a certain income from investment funds.

Some colleges have embarked on programs of selecting investments so as to provide for possibilities of appreciation, and it is thought by some that this is necessary to take care of future expansion in the educational program. This practice should be engaged in, if at all, with the full knowledge that the possibility of loss is very great. If, as a result, gains are made, these sums should be added to the endowment fund, or set up temporarily in the endowment as a reserve for losses.

The endowment funds should be so invested that the income will vary with the purchasing power of the dollar. In times like the present, therefore, when dollars are cheap, it would require a greater proportion of the investment portfolio to be in equities. As conditions change and the dollar will buy more, a larger proportion may be invested in fixed income securities. Endowment income could thus be less without too adversely affecting the operations.

Many schedules of distribution, supposedly ideal, have been made for the investment of endowment funds. Four types of investments are in most of the schedules: bonds, mortgages, preferred and common stocks. The percents of holdings in these types vary greatly. Suggested holdings of common stocks may be 10 percent in one schedule and 30 percent in another. Many, however, are in agreement that bonds and mortgages should make up from 50 to 70 percent of the investment portfolio. Whatever the investment, quality and marketability should be the first two considerations. In the case of stocks and bonds, only listed securities should be purchased.

⁴ Alnett, Trevor, *College and University Finance*. New York, General Education Board, 1922. p. 24, 26.

Summary

The problems of college finance are challenging and must be adequately solved if the privately controlled schools are to continue their traditional role in the education of the students of America. The great numbers of persons must be made aware of existing problems and intelligent appeals made for their support.

The management of investment funds should include the services of skilled investment counsel which will enable investment groups to act wisely. Prudent investments will enable the institutions to continue their programs under adverse business conditions.

Members of conference Group D discussed at some length the possibility of federal support to private institutions of higher education in the event that aid for higher education is made available. It was the considered opinion of the group that the private institution, both large and small, by virtue of its service to the people of this country in the past and present, is entitled to definite and affirmative consideration, and that further, federal aid to higher education be directed in the main to the assistance of individual students in the form of scholarships and grants, and given under conditions which would permit the individual full freedom in the selection of an accredited college or university.

Tuition and Student Fees

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP E¹

Charles A. Seidle

*Associate Dean of Students, Lehigh University
Bethlehem, Pennsylvania*

General Observations

AT THE outset it should be noted that tuition and student fees are related to other sources of income, general economic conditions, and enrollment. Comparative studies and statistics are difficult to report and interpret because of regional differences, differences in source of support and type of control, and differences in determining cost of living, national income, and production with the various interrelationships that these economic factors imply.

The cost of higher education is met by the individual and his family, by private and philanthropic gifts, and by federal, state, and local taxes. In 1939-40² over 1600 institutions of higher education received more than \$571,000,000 as educational and general income. Of this amount, approximately 35 percent came from student fees, 19 percent from private gifts, grants, and income from endowment, 38 percent from taxes, and 8 percent from other sources. Slightly more than half the income went to publicly controlled institutions (51.7 percent) which enrolled 53.3 percent of the students in 37 percent of the colleges and universities. Privately controlled institutions, representing 63 percent of the colleges and universities, received 48.3 percent of the educational and general income for 46.7 percent of the students. (These figures do not include the non-institutional costs to students, such as housing, board, etc.)

For the academic year 1937-38 Dr. Thad L. Hungate, of Teachers College, Columbia University,³ estimated expenditures for student living costs at approximately \$50,000,000, giving an estimated overall total of over \$1,135,000,000 for higher education in the United States. This represented an average expenditure per enrolled student of \$843 for the whole country, ranging from an average of \$1,225 in the New England states to \$660

¹ Group E operated under the chairmanship of F. C. Hockema, vice president and executive dean, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

² United States Office of Education. "Statistics of Higher Education." *Biennial Survey of Education: 1938-40 and 1940-42*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1944. p. 24.

³ Teachers College, Columbia University. *Financing the Future of Higher Education*. New York: Bureau of Publications, 1946. p. 165-68.

in the West South Central states. Using these overall figures, Dr. Hungate found that students paid on the average 68 percent of the total cost, public funds 20 percent, and private sources, other than students and their parents, 12 percent.

Although the widespread action by college boards in increasing tuition and fees during the postwar years and the continued announcements in the public press and educational journals of increases for the fall term 1948-49 "date" all group statistics in this area, reference to three recent studies will illustrate current trends.

Dr. Benjamin Fine, educational writer for the *New York Times*,⁴ surveyed 400 institutions of higher education for the fall term 1947-48 and found that:

... the average cost to the college student this year 1947-48 will be 37 percent higher than it was in 1940-41. Tuition fees have jumped 33 percent, student fees 50 percent, and dormitory and boarding rates 38 percent.

He pointed out that whereas prior to Pearl Harbor the average cost per student for tuition, fees, and lodging in public and private colleges was \$580 for the school year, it is now \$798 or an increase of \$218. The cost in public colleges has risen 47 percent: from \$395 to \$578 for students within the state and from \$468 to \$688 for nonresidents. For private colleges the costs have risen 39 percent, from \$575 to \$802.

The statistical study for the 1947 meeting of the Central Association of College and University Business Officers showed a similar trend in increasing tuition and fees. Of 162 colleges and universities reporting,⁵ 133 had increased their fees since 1936-37 and others planned increases for the next academic year. The reported increases averaged 40.6 percent, ranging from a low of 5 percent to a high of 196 percent.

After studying the fixed fees in land-grant colleges and universities for the prewar year 1939-40 and the postwar year 1946-47, Dr. Earl L. Kirchner, of the United States Office of Education,⁶ concluded that the average increase ranged from 7 to 24 percent for resident students and that the additional charges for nonresident students over those for resident students increased about 50 percent during this period.

A second general factor which must be considered in relation to student fees and tuition is the trend in student enrollment. In the fifty-year period from 1890 to 1940 college and university enrollments increased 853.2 percent (from 156,756 to 1,494,203) while the population increase in the

⁴ September 23, 1947.

⁵ Hoff, Charles, "Trends of Enrollment, Fees, and Salaries," *Minutes of the Thirty-Sixth Annual Meeting of the Central Association of College and University Business Officers* (Chicago, May 1947), p. 80, 81.

⁶ "Fixed Fees in Land-Grant Colleges and Universities," *Higher Education*, Vol. IV, No. 9, January 1, 1948.

age group eighteen to twenty-one rose only 89.3 percent.⁷ In the fall of 1947 the total enrollment in all institutions of higher education in the United States had risen to more than two and a quarter million students. These are facts. Students in the field of the support of higher education must necessarily be concerned with predictions of future enrollments. Dr. J. Harold Goldthorpe, of the United States Office of Education,⁸ found a wide range in the predictions made by seven careful analysts for the academic year 1959-60: from 1,900,000 to 3,700,000. The President's Commission on Higher Education⁹ recommended a minimum enrollment in 1960 of 4,600,000 young people "in nonprofit institutions for education beyond the traditional twelfth grade." Obviously the enrollment will depend, to some extent at least, on the size and portion of the cost to be borne by the student and his family.

A third major factor is the economic outlook and the difficulty of making comparative statements. In a penetrating study of the cost and support of higher education, Professor Seymour E. Harris, of Harvard University,¹⁰ has stressed the importance of taking a long view in evaluating increases in tuition and salaries and of relating teaching salaries and tuition to fluctuations in national income rather than simply to cost of living. He found, for instance, that whereas the cost of living declined 15 percent from 1920 to 1928-29, professors' salaries, in public institutions, rose 42 percent. "By 1935-36 professors' salaries in terms of goods were almost twice as high as in 1920, and assistant professors' one and three quarters times as high."¹¹ College pay and tuition lagged behind rise in cost of living and behind increase in per capita national income and factory workers' hourly pay for the period 1939-46. As Professor Harris concluded:¹²

How badly professors are found to have fared or how cheap a college education is for the student depends in no small part upon what year is assumed to be the normal year. The strongest case for a rise in salaries and tuition is presented when comparison is made with 1939. If we go back to 1913 or 1927, the case is considerably weaker. At least it is clear that the "goods" value of tuition fees and college salaries has tended to rise. This holds for Harvard tuition and salaries, and for other private and even public institutions. . . . The case for higher tuition fees and professors' salaries is stronger if it is related not to the cost of living but to the rise of productivity and national output. Here comparisons with 1913 or 1927 or 1939 show in each instance that the professors have not shared fully in the gains of progress as evidenced in the expansion of output per capita. . . .

⁷ United States Office of Education. "Statistical Summary of Education, 1943-44," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1943-44*, 1947, p. 23.

⁸ "Estimates of Future College and University Enrollment," *Higher Education*, Vol. IV, No. 14, March 18, 1948.

⁹ "Establishing the Goals," *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947, p. 39.

¹⁰ Harris, Seymour E. *How Shall We Pay for Education?* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948, p. 171-81.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 176-77.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 180-81.

Observations on Principles and Trends

The members of the group studying tuition and student fees represented small independent and church related colleges, larger independent universities, and large state institutions. It is significant that although the background and experiences of the individual members and the needs and problems of their institutions differed in many respects, there was virtually unanimous agreement to the following statement of principles and trends and to the recommendations which were later presented to the Section on Finance.

1. Such basic questions as the proportion of the total educational cost which should be borne by students at different levels of higher education in both publicly and privately supported institutions are intimately related not only to economic and enrollment factors but also to the particular circumstances of given institutions. Whether the student's share should be one-tenth, one-half, or all of the educational cost; whether account should be taken of his non-educational living costs; whether tuition charges should be related to the cost of living, are questions for determination by the individual institution on the basis of its purposes, financial situation, and constituency. However, the principle was enunciated that "students in both public and private institutions of higher education should bear some part of the academic cost of their education."

2. In considering the methods of support of colleges and universities it is necessary to observe that tuition has played an important part. As the members of the group stated: "Under the present financial organization of support of higher education, tuition, and fees are necessary not only to represent the student's responsibility for his share of his education, but also to provide in part for the effective and efficient operation of the institution, for a competent and adequate faculty, and for adequate library, laboratory, and classroom facilities."

3. When consideration is given to increases in tuition and fees, educators and the lay public must be reminded that far more services, activities, and benefits are being provided today in institutions of higher education than were available fifty or even twenty-five years ago. In addition, the rapid developments in the sciences and technology have made tremendous demands on the facilities and personnel of colleges and universities—demands that were accentuated by the great needs of two world wars. The group noted that recent raises in tuition and fees are "(1) a response to the need for increased faculty salaries, (2) a supplement to decreased revenue from other sources of income, (3) a reflection of demands for increased services and facilities over the years, and (4) a result, more recently, of the accelerated devaluation of the dollar."

4. Practically every announcement of an increase in tuition bears an

accompanying statement that increased provision has been made for scholarships, if only to the extent of bringing the value of existing tuition scholarships up to the increased rate. The importance of making higher education available to able young people regardless of economic position of their parents prompted the group to state both the hope and the belief that "despite increases in tuition and student fees, colleges and universities are continuing their attempts to equalize educational opportunity by providing scholarships, work programs, and grants for able and ambitious students of modest economic means in attending institutions of their choice."

5. Finally the group looked into the future and tried to assess the strength of the current trend in tuition increases. It felt that "unless the world and national economic conditions change radically, it is anticipated that the peak in tuition increases will generally be reached by next fall." It concluded that "there is evidence that student charges will generally be decreased in the near future."

Recommendations

After thorough discussion of the many factors affecting tuition rates and student fees and possible effects of increases in the charges, the members of the group unanimously approved twelve recommendations:

1. That a high level of academic standards and services be reestablished and increased: It is believed that the deprivations of the war years and the demands of the postwar years have caused many colleges and universities to lower standards and to curtail services. Unless these are reestablished and increased, there is little justification for imposing higher tuition rates and student fees.

2. That the base of private and corporate giving be broadened and the income from these sources be increased: There is every indication that the era of accumulating large private fortunes is past. Many colleges have been forced to seek smaller gifts from more donors as well as gifts from interested corporations and groups. Such giving is to be encouraged, particularly where it obviates the necessity of further increases in tuition and student fees.

3. That further to assist in equalizing educational opportunity, scholarships from public funds be granted to able students, with provision for free selection of accredited colleges or universities: the community benefits by the higher education of its able young people. For three centuries colleges and universities of differing sizes, types of control, and constituencies have contributed to the promotion of learning and the dissemination of culture on the American continent. It is the conviction of the members of this group that the unique function and nature of American higher education can best be continued by providing public aid directly to qualified students rather than to the institutions.

The remaining recommendations are more specific and need no additional elaboration.

4. That an all-inclusive student fee for a normal program be established in preference to multiplicity of fees, such overall fee to state the services included.

5. That when individual fees are charged, they be specifically itemized and published and reasonable uniformity in terminology sought.

6. That non-refundable fees for evaluating credentials, if charged, be kept to a minimum consistent with the cost of such service.

7. That where institutions charge advance deposits for new students accepted for admission, effort be made to secure uniformity in amount of that deposit among similar institutions.

8. That student fees and tuition be uniformed for each year in a four-year undergraduate program.

9. That in setting tuition rates consideration be given to differences in cost of instruction at professional and graduate levels within the same institution.

10. That out-of-state tuition at state institutions be made more uniform.

11. That reciprocal arrangements between states with respect to out-of-state tuition be abandoned.

12. That uniformity in tuition and student fees be sought at publicly supported institutions of the same type within the same state.

PART II. STUDENT PERSONNEL

Reappraisal of Enrollment Trends and Implications

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP F¹

John W. Bunn

*Registrar, Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, Ohio*

ACCURATE forecasts of college and university enrollments are vital to college administrators. Budgets, expansion of physical facilities, hiring of faculty, and other necessary long-range planning depend to a great extent upon the number of students who may be expected to seek admission to college within the next ten years. Recent experience has created the impression that estimates now in use need reappraisal, especially since a number of the predictions seem to have been too high.

In April 1947, a group of college and university administrators met in Chicago with the National Education Association Division of Higher Education. At that time the group issued a report which proved to be a close estimate of the actual enrollment figures for 1947-48. This report specifically recognized that enrollments are influenced by many variable and uncertain factors. A re-evaluation of this study, made by a similar group in March 1948, presents a revised estimate.

Determinate Factors in Predicting Enrollments

In certain respects the problems of determining the number of students who will attend college are factual in nature.

1. It is demonstrable that the percent of high school graduates who attend college has been steadily increasing since 1900; and although a saturation point should eventually be reached, it seems that for the next generation there are no factors present to discourage a continuing, though more gradual, increase. Harl R. Douglas and Lloyd H. Elliott assumed that college enrollment of the 18 to 21 year age group would tend to increase from 15 percent in 1940 to 21 percent by 1960.² The projection of this formula was used in estimating future enrollments.

¹Group F operated under the chairmanship of Albert C. Jacobs, provost, Columbia University, New York, New York. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

²Douglas, Harl R., and Elliott, Lloyd H., "What Will Happen After the Veterans Leave?" *School and Society*, Vol. LXVI (December 20, 1947), p. 466.

2. The number of births each year, recorded by the Bureau of Vital Statistics, are directly applicable. The declining birth rate during the period 1930 to 1936 will affect the supply of college students during the period 1948 to 1954, but in 1955 a remarkable increase in college enrollment may be expected, and continuing through the 1960's this supply of potential students will grow yearly.

3. The number of veterans interested in college education may now be relatively well determined; the length of time these veterans will remain in colleges has been reduced by approximately two years. The effect of Public Law 16 requiring students to attend summer sessions, and the voluntary efforts of other veterans to accelerate their education have changed previous forecasts. It was the definite opinion of the group which studied the estimate and statistics of the Veterans Administration that the fall of 1947 was the period of peak enrollment for veterans. Graduations in the spring of 1948 and termination of entitlements will sharply reduce the total enrollment of veterans in school, since the number of entering veterans can not maintain the present level.

Assumed Factors in Predicting Enrollment

Many factors interfering with accurate predictions are related to current affairs. Consideration must be given to general economic and social conditions; future appropriations and gifts for educational facilities by national, state, and local agencies; future legislation affecting armed service, requirements for men. These unknown factors could conceivably have severe repercussions on enrollments. Considering these basic problems in smaller detail, the study group reached the following conclusions:

1. *Cost of Living.* A continued increase in the cost of living will probably impair the ability of many families to send children to college; conversely, lower indices of living costs will encourage students to attend.

2. *Tuition and Fees.* The recent tendency of colleges and universities to increase direct charges to the student will reduce the number of students who can afford to attend.

3. *Employment Levels.* Moderate change in the number of people employed will not greatly affect enrollment figures. The loss of income resulting from unemployment naturally will reduce the ability of a family to send children to college. To offset this loss of students there will be an increase in veterans who accepted interim employment between service discharge and entry to college. Their lack of seniority to job rights will encourage these veterans to attend colleges until employment prospects are improved. Should a severe depression develop, the resulting sharp lowering of employment levels will reduce college enrollment, as the depression of 1930-1935 proved.

4. *Social Attitudes.* Higher education has become a part of the necessary

training for more youth than ever before. As previously indicated, this tendency will encourage more high school graduates to attend college. A concomitant result will be to reduce attrition once a student has been enrolled, for society is demanding more positions be filled by college graduates. Remaining in school for longer periods of time enlarges the total enrollment figures.

5. *Equalization of Opportunities.* More important than often realized is the significant increase in the number of minority groups now eligible for and attending college. For example, schools serving negro students increased their enrollment this past fall at a greater rate than other institutions.³ This previously untapped source of student supply will increase the total enrollment. (Obviously an economic depression may interfere, for many in these groups belong in a marginal income bracket.)

6. *Educational Prerequisites for Professions.* There seems to be a general trend to raise the standards of many professions by the addition of educational requirements. The recent legislation in some areas to require embalmers to attend college before their specialized training, is fairly typical of the tendency.

7. *State Aid.* In recent years public institutions of higher learning have been the beneficiaries of increased legislative appropriations providing for increased facilities and additional instruction. A continued interest by the states in educating their youth may be expected. For example, the recent provisions by New York State to create community colleges, will make education available to more students.

8. *Endowments and Gifts.* Less spectacular but equally significant have been the resources made available to private institutions. O. C. Carmichael, President of the Carnegie Foundation for Advancement of Teaching, estimates that "current campaigns for buildings and endowment total more than \$2,000,000,000."⁴ This growth in financial support of private institutions will enable more students to receive low-cost college education, if it is not offset by declining value of invested endowments.

9. *Federal Aid.* Although the Report of the President's Commission shows that some 4,600,000 students are capable of some college training, this report in itself does not affect college enrollments. These goals in enrollment, as presented, should not be confused with prediction of enrollment. It may be safely assumed, however, that scholarships, grants, or other financial inducements appropriated for youth will encourage enrollment. Only when the sums of money are determined, and the details of the legislation clarified can the effect on total college enrollment be ascertained.

³ United States Office of Education, "1947 Fall Enrollment in Higher Educational Institutions," Circular No. 238 (Washington, November 10, 1947), p. 2-3.

⁴ Carmichael, O. C., "The Role of Higher Education in American Society," an address before the National Conference on Higher Education, March 22, 1948.

Factors Related to Veteran Enrollment

1. Although the enlistments under Public Law 190 are beginning to terminate, the number of persons thus made eligible for college will probably not check the downward trend in veteran enrollment. Between October 1945 and October 1946 approximately 1,245,000 men were enlisted in the services for periods of eighteen months to four years with the promise of educational benefits to be received later. Without adequate information concerning the individual plans of these men, only assumptions can be made, but a considered estimate, based on the percentage in any age group normally attending college, with an upward adjustment for the inducements offered, shows that about 400,000 may expect to utilize their benefits from Public Law 190 in institutions of higher learning. (The balance may receive vocational training from other institutions.) Beginning in the fall of 1948 an appreciable number will enroll in colleges—possibly 125,000. The maximum load will probably be reached in the academic year 1949-50, although a large group will remain in colleges until 1952.

2. The effect on enrollment of increased subsistence allowances is, again, a matter of approximation and estimate. Many of the advantages of the increased subsistence payments are nullified by the higher cost of a college education. For this reason few new students will be attracted to institutions, but it may be safely assumed that the payments will help a large number of veterans with dependents to remain in school.

3. Previous high estimates of veteran enrollment were based on the number of letters of eligibility issued by the Veterans Administration. Over 2,600,000 such certificates have not been utilized. Probably the explanation for this backlog may be found in the procedures at Separation Centers where many of the armed services counselors encouraged all dischargees to file applications for educational benefits. It is now felt that many such applications were filed with only a bare hope that the benefit would be used. Furthermore, most of the unused certificates were filed about two years ago. Time, age, responsibilities and habit patterns would seem to reduce the chances of these veterans ever attending colleges. Recently it has been observed that those who file now for applications immediately enroll in college. It may be concluded from these observations that the unused certificates will not be claimed.

To assist in validating the accuracy of these estimates, some 500 college and university administrators in attendance at the National Education Association Conference on Higher Education filled out a questionnaire. Although this questionnaire could not provide a statistically infallible study, it is of interest to observe that the administrators collectively substantiated

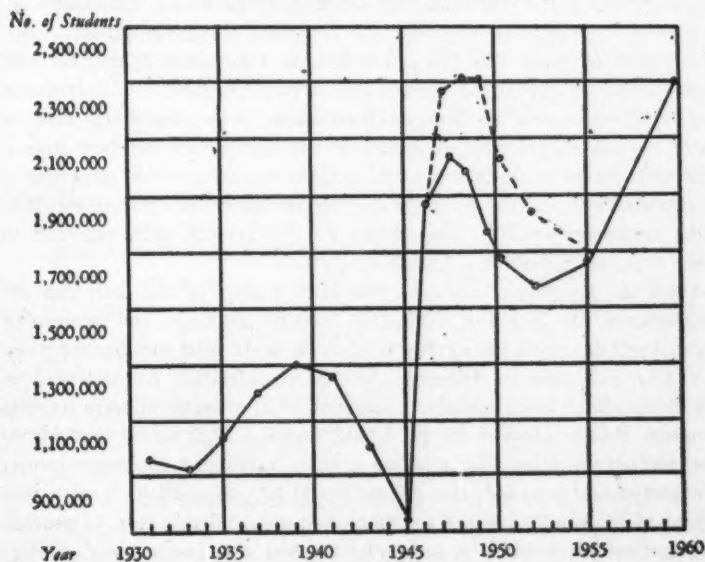
the 1948 estimates. In Table II a summary of their opinion converted to percents reveals the anticipated changes from the 1947 enrollment.

TABLE II. ESTIMATED ENROLLMENTS IN FALL TERMS, 1948
THROUGH 1960

Year	Veterans	Non-Veterans	Total	Change from 1947 Enrollments
1948	950,000	1,250,000	2,200,000	-01.8%
1949	700,000	1,300,000	2,000,000	-10.7%
1950	600,000	1,300,000	1,900,000	-15.1%
1952	400,000	1,400,000	1,800,000	-19.1%
1955	150,000	1,750,000	1,900,000	-15.1%
1960	2,500,000	2,500,000	+11.6%

Graphically this estimate may be shown in Table III. The dotted line indicates the estimate made in 1947 by the NEA Department of Higher Education and published in the official group reports by Ernest C. Miller—page 32.

TABLE III. ESTIMATED ENROLLMENTS IN FALL TERMS, 1948
THROUGH 1960 (GRAPH)⁵



⁵ Data from 1929-1947 taken from Russell, John Dale, "Enrollment Trends in Higher Education," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, Vol. XXII (July 1947), p. 414.

Effects of Selective Service and Universal Military Training

The present discussions in Congress relative to increasing the effectiveness of the armed services presents two separate problems in college and university enrollment.

TABLE IV. ANTICIPATED CHANGES FROM 1947 ENROLLMENTS,
1948 AND 1950

<i>Type of Institution</i>	<i>Year 1948</i>	<i>Year 1950</i>
Private Universities	—7.3%	—23.0%
Public Institutions	—2.1%	— 6.2%
Independent Art and Science	—1.0%	— 2.8%
Independent Teachers Colleges	— .4%	—12.0%
Technical Colleges	+1.2%	+ .9%

1. *Selective Service.* If a draft is made on an age group normally attending college, definite reductions in college enrollment may be expected. Since health and abilities standards for college entrance are comparable to those of the services, a higher percent of potential college students will be drafted than normal chance selection would indicate. Probably every 100,000 men added to the armed services will remove 20,000 potential students from college campuses in the year when they normally would attend. The college administrators, attempting to utilize the foregoing charts for predicate purposes, must recognize that this loss is in male enrollment. It thus becomes a significant percent of the present non-veteran members of the freshman and sophomore classes who have not been subject to previous drafts. Furthermore, new classes entering an institution will be similarly affected. Experience with the last drafts on manpower indicate that some critical categories in professional training may be established for deferment. However, statistically these deferments would be insignificant, for it is not politically expedient to defer many individuals in a democratic state.

Until the legislation is written, the lasting effect of the draft can not be predicted. The length of service, the rules for discharge, and the benefits accrued will determine the increase or decrease in the total enrollment figures.

2. *Universal Military Training.* Another consideration not indicated in the charts above is the possible enactment of a universal military training program. Present plans seemingly would permit a high school graduate to continue his education after a period of basic training in government camps. The entrance of a student into college would be postponed for a minimum period of six months but not for more than one academic year. In general, a class scheduled to enroll in college for the year after enactment of the legislation will include only women and physically handicapped men students. After that the normal enrollment may actually be increased, for some men

may be induced to enter college who would not have been encouraged otherwise.

Conclusions

Undoubtedly, most college administrators have been aware of the factors discussed in this report, and have been sensitive to enrollment tendencies within their own areas. It does seem significant, however, that experienced college men from all parts of the nation agree not only that previous estimates have been high, but also that college enrollments of the future may be materially affected by any of several variables. In interpreting this information for planning and development, individual institutions must apply certain additional factors, such as local conditions, migrations of people, and effective public relations, all peculiar to specific institutions. Consideration, too, must be given to trends that might indicate radical social, economic, or political changes in the future.

Selective Admission Policy and Procedure

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP G¹

George D. Small

*Dean of Admissions and Coordinator for Veterans
University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma*

CURRENT admission policies and procedures in institutions of higher education reflect all of the dynamic movements in education at all levels. When, for example, elementary school pupils pursue programs of study in which reading and mathematics are emphasized or unemphasized college admission policies will have to recognize this fact four or five years later when the student seeks admission to college. If secondary schools and junior colleges gear their program to the demands of terminal education, rather than the preparation of students for entrance to college, admission policies and practices must shift to meet such an exigency.

What has been said about forces which operate within the framework of education is equally true of forces which operate within society at large. When business and industry, for example, make even slight shifts in their qualifications for trained personnel, college admission policies reflect a sensitivity to this fact. It is the revolutionary crisis periods such as depressions, recessions, periods of inflation and war which mirror the greatest sensitivity by education. The present threat of universal military training and return to a system of selective service are pertinent examples.

It may readily be seen, therefore, that the steady pyramiding of college enrollments which has so thoroughly characterized institutions of higher education during the past quarter of a century has not been the only factor to cause sweeping changes in college admission policies and practices. Pyramided enrollments are merely the symptoms of larger and more dynamic movements within the framework of both education and society at large.

It is doubtful, however, if there has ever been a time in the long and often turbulent history of higher education when sensitivity and alertness to these broader movements which are shaping the destiny of higher education have been so necessary. It is generally agreed that college enrollments have reached a leveling off stage from the high peak attained by the impetus of veteran enrollment. This leveling off period will be continued for the next five or six years, but even with the reductions which are expected enrollment will remain substantially above the pre-war level. Another upward

¹ Group G operated under the chairmanship of Kenneth Little, registrar and director, Student Personnel Services, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

trend will develop about 1955 and continue through 1960. It is also generally agreed that changing objectives manifesting themselves in the secondary schools as well as the new impetus being given to the establishment of junior colleges by the President's Commission on Higher Education will cause both of these units of the educational system to greatly expand their total educational offering in the years immediately ahead. It should be apparent that with both the secondary school and the junior college committed to taking all students who come to their doors they must do something more than just prepare students for college. It is further agreed that in spite of the tremendous influx of students to the college campus during the past few years that colleges in general have been able to raise their standards materially.

When to this general formula of dynamics within the borders of education there is added the task of preparing leadership for a peace time economy and at least the threat of a possible return to a war time economy we see something of the situation the college admissions program faces in the immediate future. What effect will the rapidly changing objectives of secondary education have upon admission policies and procedures of the future? Just how will the expanding junior college program affect admission policies and procedures in the four year college? In the face of fluctuating enrollments will colleges be able to maintain the standards developed since the end of World War II? Have they developed admission policies and practices which will permit shifting quickly from a peace economy to a war economy basis? Will admission policies and practices become more selective or less selective under the exigencies of the task ahead? These are only a few of the problems facing admission officers. Certainly it should be obvious that to be effective admission policies and procedures can never be standardized if geared to meet the changing movements both within and without the college environment.

Philosophy

Admissions has been described by many authorities as a personnel function and while there is a trend toward the acceptance of this viewpoint other authorities have labelled it an academic function. This dualism is more apparent than real if we recognize education as a unified process. But no matter where the admissions process is assigned in the administrative organization of the college there is agreement that it must serve and reflect all of the major philosophies, policies, purposes, traditions, and means of support which exist in a given institution at a particular time.

The working philosophy of the admissions program, however, will not differ greatly from the philosophy expressed by other personnel agencies. This philosophy, summarily stated, is designed to "consider each student as unique, is concerned with the development of his total personality, commit-

ted to developing an educational program for him in terms of his present needs, interests and abilities, and starting this program in all its aspects, at the point which the individual has reached in his educational process or growth."²

The acceptance of the personnel point of view as the major working philosophy to govern admission policy and procedure in a college or university does not necessarily make the admission program incompatible with other aspects of the total program of the college or university. It is generally agreed that such a philosophy of education cuts through all divisional lines and should be fundamental in all institutions and therefore coincidental with the aims and purposes of the institution itself.

Any admission program which attempts to operate outside this general concept is likely to find itself bogged down with the mere mechanics of "accepting" and "rejecting" students. Such a narrow-gauge concept of admissions is harmful to the individual seeking admission at one of his most vulnerable points and is almost sure to leave him frustrated and confused whether he is admitted to the institution or not. Admission policies and procedures must be directly concerned with the initial orientation, of the student to college life. Such individual problems as the student's fitness for college work in terms of his own abilities and background, whether or not his vocational goals and choices are realistic, the degree of emotional maturity he has achieved, the factors which motivate him as well as the state of his health, must all be considered against the background of the offerings of the college to which he is seeking admission. Furthermore these factors must be considered prior to the decision as to acceptance or rejection.

But the process is not completed with the acceptance of the applicant. The college also has within the limitations of its resources an obligation to the unsuccessful applicant to guide him into something for which he is better suited. The information upon which rejection is based remains a record of human values, and the college is under moral obligation to make use of it for the student's benefit. Society is the loser if the college fails to discharge this obligation.³

Functions

The admission program of a college or university must serve six primary functions or purposes:

1. The intelligent interpretation of the educational offerings of the college or university to prospective students.
2. The selection and initial induction of qualified students to the total

² Hawkes, Mrs. Herbert H. Student Counseling. Report of group X, National Conference on Higher Education, 1947.

³ Smyser, W. C. Admission Policy and Student Accounting. Report group IX. National Conference on Higher Education, 1947.

educational offering of the college or university in terms of his own interests, abilities, and needs.

3. The development of adequate policies and procedures for selecting qualified students.

4. Cooperation with secondary schools, junior colleges, and other agencies directly concerned with the admission of students to the college or university.

5. The development of policies and procedures for aiding students who are rejected by the college or university.

6. The development of a broad research program designed to increase the effectiveness of admission policies and procedures.

This statement of the primary function of college admission programs carries with it the qualification that so long as emergency conditions exist all institutions will accept as many students as they can adequately serve. Such a statement of functions implies further that even state supported institutions which are under legal injunction against selective admissions could conceivably operate within this framework since they could develop counseling and testing programs which would be instrumental in guiding those students whom they cannot adequately serve to other types of instruction or training programs better suited to their needs.

Policy

The present trend in admission policy is toward the disappearance of policies established during the war, although, a continuing large flow of applicants will tend to perpetuate current policies, at least until the nations total college facilities and teaching personnel are equal to the demand. The anticipated leveling off of enrollments during the next few years will give the colleges a needed breathing spell to take stock of their resources. When enrollments start climbing again colleges and universities will be in a position to cope with the situation without the frustration and strain which was so noticeable from 1945 to 1948.

Private colleges will continue to be selective in their admission policies and will follow a trend toward further limiting their enrollment. Many private colleges even hope to reduce their enrollments to a point below their emergency peak but slightly above their pre-war figures. Public institutions show a slight trend to abandon or to relax restrictions upon non-resident applications. Most institutions regard such restrictions as purely emergency in nature. There is, however, no observable trend upon the part of public institutions to become more selective in their admission policies.

Many institutions are also abandoning or at least relaxing requirements which specify particular units of high school work for admission to college. Recent research studies seem to indicate that there is no best pattern of secondary school units prerequisite to success in college. Such studies also indicate that some institutions have found that mature students with no high

school units or at least a greatly reduced schedule are capable of doing satisfactory work. There should, however, be further research on such findings by all institutions contemplating such a course before it is adapted as an admission policy.

It is generally agreed also that the function of admission officers is becoming considerably broader than the mere examination of credentials and the determination of admissibility. It is apparent that this trend indicates that admission offices will at least become the clearing house for many students seeking information about broad occupational trends as well as information about their own occupational aptitudes and interests. Such an emphasis, of course, establishes preadmission counselling as an important function of the admission office.

Procedures

Admission officers and counselors seem agreed on the desirability of giving greater attention to the total personal qualifications of each applicant, including such factors as health, social effectiveness, emotional maturity, and motivation as well as the traditional consideration of ability, interests and achievement. However, the essential criteria for admission continues to be (1) evidence of scholastic aptitude and (2) evidence of scholastic achievement. The more commonly used measures for determining the applicants qualifications within these two areas are standardized tests of scholastic aptitude and rank in the high school graduating class. These two measures have, over a long period of years, shown the greatest statistical reliability and practical effectiveness.

The apparent crystalization of essential criteria for admission to college does not mean that colleges have reached a point where admission procedures are becoming static. There is a great deal of experimental work being done at the present time on admissions. There is, for example, a very noticeable extension of testing programs to include wider areas of knowledge, vocational interest and aptitude and determining reading deficiencies. While there is a tendency to extend the use of College Board Entrance Examinations and Graduate Record Examinations, the American Council on Education Psychological Examinations and other Cooperative Tests are most universally used. It was noticeable also that some states and even some colleges are developing their own tests and determining norms based upon the success of their own students.

In considering such factors as health, social effectiveness, emotional maturity and motivation the personal interview has been found to be the most widely used technique. The consideration of such factors, however, has initiated a new interest in cumulative records of a type which will give ad-

mission officers a more pertinent type of information about the student and at a much earlier period than has hitherto been available. To date there is little standardization of forms for recording such information. Each institution has found it advisable to construct its own record forms based on information pertinent to its own particular needs.

Special Problems

Seven unresolved problems of major importance remain to plague college admission officers although some progress has been made toward a solution of them since the 1947 conference. These problems are:

1. *Multiple applications*—While it should be granted that some students should make multiple application it remains an unresolved and expensive problem for many institutions. The requirement of non-refundable deposits with applications has not been an effective deterrent. Earlier filing of applications (possibly in the junior year of high school), clarification of admission policies, cooperation with statewide testing programs, maintaining a daily flow of acceptance for students who qualify for admission and notification of high school principals (who in turn would be asked to notify other colleges where student had applied) when student has been accepted, were deemed better procedures than fee policy.

2. *Developing effective cooperation with state, regional, and national testing agencies*—Testing programs for high school counselling, for college placement and for college counselling at the present time overlap and the result is duplication of effort and unnecessary pyramiding of expense. Some state programs exist and the College Board program covers the Eastern area to a certain extent. The College Boards, however, are not designed to provide for an every-pupil program such as might be desirable in the middle West.

A special committee from the conference group recommended that "the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association sponsor a study of the possibilities of instituting a testing program on a regional or national basis. This program should be designed to serve at least two purposes. (1) To assist the secondary schools in developing their counselling programs; and (2) to provide information to the colleges for admission and counselling purposes."

3. *Foreign Students*—The problem of evaluating credentials of foreign students which have troubled admission officers over the past two conference periods seems to have been reasonably well solved. The major problems of foreign students now center around determining or improving their effectiveness in the use of the English language, finding financial assistance, and becoming assimilated into the campus community and life. Advisors to foreign students are being appointed in many institutions to facilitate this work.

The tendency on most campuses is to welcome the admission of well-qualified students from other countries.

4. *Minority groups*—The current enrollment situation has accentuated problems among some minority groups particularly in localities where there is a concentration of such groups. It needs to be pointed out, however, that the problem of equalizing educational opportunities is deeper and wider than admission policies and procedures. This fact does not lessen the obligation for admission officers to work with interested groups in trying to find a more satisfactory solution to the problem of minority groups than exists at the present time. Within recent years a tendency is growing to remove from application blanks items of information about color, religion and racial origin. There seems to be a marked disposition upon the part of the majority of colleges to admit applicants upon the basis of individual scholastic promise.

5. *Control of admissions to specialized courses*—Deep concern has been expressed by many college administrators regarding the unbalanced number of students seeking admission to certain specialized courses. It is feared that in many areas it will soon be impossible to place all the students who will be graduating. The conference membership was of the opinion that attempts to control admissions to specialized courses according to contemplated social needs seem hazardous. Such control is more tenable in the professions of law, medicine, and teaching than in other fields. Better procedure seems to be to provide students with the best available information about occupational trends and about their own occupational aptitudes and interests and then leave the decision as to whether or not entry should be made into a particular field up to the student. Again, careful counselling rather than pre-determined quotas is implied.

6. *Cooperation with secondary schools and junior colleges*—The improvement of admission policies and procedures in the future depends to no small extent upon improved relationships with secondary schools and junior colleges. As more effective counselling programs are developed in these two units it is thought that admission procedures can be initiated at a much earlier period in the students educational career. Some few institutions are already experimenting with the possibility of accepting the application of students early in the high school senior year. Other institutions think that, with effective counselling admissions might even be considered in the junior year. This procedure implies of course that the colleges will be obliged to receive full information about the student much earlier than has hitherto been available. It also implies that decisions will have to be made before final high school grades and rankings are known, and to that extent the decisions will have to be tentative.

The colleges will reciprocate by liberalizing present admission policies

to recognize more thoroughly recommendations of competent secondary school authorities regarding the applicants potentials for success in college. Both college and secondary school counselors will assume greater responsibility for notifying each other when the student is finally accepted to college. If such a procedure can be worked out it should do much to solve multiple application problems and speed up the handling of admissions during crisis periods.

The procedure which has been described for secondary schools should work equally well at the junior college levels where even more adequate information will be available about the early individual applicant.

7. *Transfer students*—The conference membership agreed as a whole that out of the experience gained during the emergency, which has existed during the past three or four years, effective admission procedures are being developed for the admission of freshman into college but that the weakness in admission policies and procedures on the upper levels might well be considered the greatest weakness of the whole admission program at the present time. Few institutions have developed adequate admission forms for students transferring from other colleges. There is some uniformity in the recording of credits earned in other institutions and most institutions permit students who have made unsuccessful records in another college to transfer to their institution. But little effort is made to orientate the transfer student with the same care and intelligence that is used in admitting the first year student.

It was agreed that this whole area involving the admission of transfer students should be marked for discussion and research by agencies dealing with the admission of students.

Organization

College authorities are giving considerable attention to the place admissions should occupy in the organizational pattern of the college. This problem has not been solved, but the members of the Conference definitely noted several trends toward the solution. It was the consensus of the Committee's membership that the admission program functions best when the responsibility is centered in one individual with a "staff" relationship to other administrative heads of the college or university.

In the majority of colleges, admissions was long a function of the registrar's office, with the responsibility of the acceptance or rejection of a student assigned to an admission committee. With the increase in the complexities of college programs and in the numbers applying for admission, many colleges found it necessary to appoint deans or directors of admissions. Under the dean or director the committee plan has been maintained. The admission committee is usually responsible for (1) policy making, and (2) clearing exceptional and questionable cases. In many instances the dean of

admissions is established as a separate administrative unit responsible directly to the president. Sometimes the office of the registrar is combined with that of the dean of admissions, but still as a separate administrative unit responsible only to the president.

The conference noted that there is a trend to treat admissions as a personnel function of the college, and, as such, to assign it directly to the office of the dean of students. The placing of the responsibility for admissions in the office of the dean of students or under the supervision of the director of student personnel was found to be far from universal and was not recommended as a procedure by the conference group. It was generally agreed that the admission program has a far greater responsibility and service than the mere acceptance or rejection of students. The functions should be extended to include guidance and counsel for those rejected as well as for those accepted. To accomplish better its purpose, the office of admissions should have its own place separate in the organizational scheme of the college or university. Whether the dean has "line" responsibility directly to the president or to a designated head of the personnel services is a problem for each individual institution to work out in light of its overall efforts to coordinate various aspects of its total offering to students. The personnel within the institution is also an important factor to be considered when assigning an organizational place to admissions. If the "line" responsibility is to the dean of students office, coordination can best be effected if this office carries also the title of dean or director of admissions.⁴

⁴ The writer is greatly indebted to Roy Armstrong, director of admissions, at the University of North Carolina for help with the section on organization.

Student Organization and Student Activities

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP H¹

A. Blair Knapp

*Dean of Students, Temple University
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania*

GROUPS X and XI of the National Conference on Higher Education in 1947 were concerned with the personnel program in terms of the basic problems of philosophy, organization, and functions. Group H of the 1948 Conference was assigned the more limited and specific task of considering one aspect of the personnel program: student organizations and extracurriculum activities.

The members of this group generally accepted the report of the 1947 groups as the frame of reference for their discussions.² That report describes personnel work as stressing the uniqueness of each student. It treats the student as a whole personality. Its objective is to fit the student for effective living in his world. In its philosophy and purpose personnel work is identical with the stated objectives of modern higher education itself. One of the significant responsibilities of each institution of higher education, and its student personnel division in particular, is to provide an educational atmosphere which will encourage the development of student organizations and activities essential to the full understanding and the effective maintenance of the art of effective living in a democratic society. So-called extracurriculum activities are not to be considered as "side shows" nor as primarily recreational in character, but should be regarded as educational media. The curriculum and the extracurriculum program are two parts of the same educational process. Both are essential to the purposes of higher education.

Extracurriculum Activities and the Faculty

If the educational objectives of extracurriculum activities are to be realized, they must be cooperative undertakings involving both students and faculty. The impact of a mature mind and a well-developed personality upon the growing personality and developing mind of the student is as essential in extracurriculum education as it is in the classroom. Students who are engaged in extracurriculum activities must be continually influenced, challenged, and inspired by interested members of the faculty. Otherwise, these

¹ Group H operated under the chairmanship of Howard S. McDonald, president, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

² See the official group reports of the 1947 Conference. "Current Problems in Higher Education," p. 111-34.

activities will lose much, if not all, of their educational significance. This does not mean that these activities should be directed or supervised by the faculty. The technique of dominance has no place in this area. However, effective group counselling and advising of student leaders must be provided.

The educational implications of student activities are generally understood today by a majority of the members of the faculty. In too many cases, however, these same faculty members assume that it is the function of the personnel agency to provide the leadership and counselling mentioned above. Obviously, this is an impossibility. No personnel staff is large enough, nor can it ever be, to adequately provide such service. It is clear, then, that members of the faculty must be encouraged to engage in active, continuous, and enthusiastic participation in some area of the student activity program. They must be convinced that such participation is just as much a part of their professional responsibility as teaching, research and publication. It is the responsibility of the personnel administrator to develop a program which will bring about the necessary participation. There are many and varied ways in which this can be done. It was suggested, however, that an indispensable first step is to convince top institutional leaders that such participation is essential.

Furthermore, in matters of promotion, increase in compensation, and selection of new faculty personnel, an evaluation of the contribution made to the activity program should be considered together with teaching effectiveness, research, and publication. Faculty members are more likely to maintain sustained interest in extracurriculum education if their efforts and abilities in that area are regarded as important and significant by presidents and deans.

Evaluating the Activities Program

Extracurriculum activities will provide significant educational experience for students only if they are continually evaluated in terms of valid criteria. Six general criteria were approved as providing a sound basis for critical evaluation of both old and new student organizations and activities.

1. Does the activity promote the art of living together and does it develop sound ethical and cultural standards in social relationships?
2. Does the activity develop an understanding of the basic American philosophy in its emphasis on the integrity of human personality?
3. Does the activity promote an understanding of the procedures and techniques for solving problems in a democratic manner and does it develop skill in their use?
4. Does the activity provide an opportunity for individual recreation and continuing growth?
5. Does the activity provide an opportunity for the further development of vocational and avocational interests?

6. Is the activity, its purposes, methods, and results, in harmony with the objectives of the institution?

While these suggested criteria are stated in general terms it was decided that they are sufficiently specific in import to test adequately the educational quality of an activities program. In each institution, more specific questions in harmony with these general criteria can easily be framed so that the evaluation is keyed to the local situation.

No attempt was made to develop a complete list of techniques of evaluation by which activities and organizations might be judged. It was assumed that there might appropriately be wide variation in this respect. It was emphasized, however, that a systematic evaluation should be made annually. It might appropriately be included as part of the planned program of training student leaders. No matter how it is conducted, it must be planned carefully. It should include students, faculty advisers, and personnel staff, and carefully written reports should be prepared. These reports will be invaluable in perfecting the methods used in the annual evaluation. In addition they will develop a historical record which will be useful. In some institutions this evaluation includes an annual rechartering of all organizations. This was considered to be a valid but not an essential technique for forcing an annual re-examination of each activity.

No matter what techniques are employed the systematic annual evaluation should be a three-way process. First, the aims, methods, and results of the activity or organization should be reviewed in the light of the suggested criteria. Second, the contribution of the activity to the educational growth of each student participant should be estimated. Third, the contribution of each student participant to the activity of the group should be rated. All of this should stress qualitative and not quantitative elements. If carefully organized, and systematically performed for a few years, this evaluative procedure should provide data for a worthwhile study of the whole activity program which some have termed a sociological analysis of extracurriculum life. In this connection the need for experimentation on each campus was stressed with the recommendation that an adequate system of reporting successes and failures should be established.

The financial problems of student organizations should be included in the evaluation, particularly to insure that students receive training and experience in planning and administering organizational finances in a responsible manner. At the time, it was suggested that activity fees should be assessed, collected, disbursed, and audited by students under institutional advisement in order to avoid extra-budgetary methods of raising funds.

The problem of evaluating the petitions for new organizations and new activities was viewed as involving somewhat different problems from those related to old organizations although the suggested criteria should still be

applied. One of the special elements to be considered is the matter of duplication. It was felt that new organizations and activities ought not to be chartered if they are but duplicates of existing ones. It was the unanimous opinion of the members of the group that the affiliation of a proposed organization or activity with a national organization was another element that should be considered carefully before a charter was authorized.

Two aspects of the national affiliation were stressed. First, what are the financial relationships and obligations of the local to the national? Many of these involve excessive costs to students for which little or nothing is received in return. It was agreed that the work of the National Conference on College Fraternities and Societies had been helpful in minimizing undesirable situations of this sort and it was felt that the collection and dissemination of information with respect to all kinds of national organizations seeking to establish local units on college campuses should be expanded and made available to all institutions. Second, the matter of national control of policy and program is of serious concern to the institution. Obviously any local group which is affiliated with a national organization will be to some extent influenced by national policies. But the degree to which it is influenced, in some cases amounting to complete prescription, may be such that the institution should refuse to charter if it is to retain the right to develop its own educational policies and programs. In these cases the distinction between education and propaganda, admittedly difficult to draw, becomes an important item for consideration in evaluating a new petition.

The Problem of Continuity

The fact that students are on the campus for four years or less and usually involved in particular activities for even shorter periods creates extreme difficulty. The turn-over of student participants and especially student leaders is very rapid. The problem of continuity, as a consequence, is perhaps the most difficult of all in the effective development of an activities program. Certain practical suggestions were made to meet this problem, most of which are being successfully utilized in one or more institutions.

The one primary method accepted by all for meeting this problem is some program of leadership training. It was obvious that the specific details would vary from place to place, but in all cases it was recognized that the newly elected student leaders need orientation to their responsibilities. In some instances the procedures of evaluation previously referred to are incorporated in the program. In other instances, they are separately organized. In all cases a systematic program of leadership training involving faculty advisers as well as student leaders is an essential. In most cases such a program is planned to precede the induction into office. In some cases the retiring as well as the incoming officers are involved and the consensus was that

this plan is to be preferred. It was suggested at this point that advisers from the faculty are most successful if they are elected by students rather than appointed by the administration.

It was agreed that no matter how effectively such a training program might be devised, it should, in all cases, be supplemented by a continuous "inservice" training program. The pattern for this would vary with the local situation, but the principles of constructive criticism, challenge, and provocative suggestion would be utilized. The so-called President's Forums as practised at The College of The City of New York were viewed with general approval and variations thereof to suit local conditions were strongly recommended.

Another specific, utilized successfully in many institutions, is the simple device of electing new student officers before Christmas and effecting the transfer of authority not later than the first week of the second semester. This was recommended as a sound device to facilitate better leadership training programs to avoid second semester senior "fatigue and diversion of interest," and to assure the initiation in September of the activities program with experienced and trained leadership.

Another specific which can be recommended strongly is a technique evolved at Syracuse University for the development of a corps of "Student Civil Service Officers" or "Student Service Officers". This idea seeks to meet the problem of continuity by the creation of a trained group of students from the sophomore through the senior year. These students, are selected and promoted "on merit" as contrasted with political preferment. Since they are involved in key positions in student activities for three years, they are able to transmit to new political leaders the lessons of the past. Through a student medium they can provide the balance of experience which otherwise can be supplied only through the intervention of faculty advisers. Such intervention borders on dominance and direction.

Another factor in meeting this problem impinges on the general problem of participation. It was agreed that if students begin to participate in the freshmen year and progressively are given an opportunity to develop and grow, many of the aspects of the problem of continuity will disappear.

The Problem of Participation

Participation was recognized as a "two-edged" problem. If it is true that extracurriculum education is as vital as the curriculum program in the whole process of higher education, then the conclusion follows that all, not a few students should participate therein. The group accepted this conclusion, but rejected the notion that participation should be compulsory. It vetoed the suggestion that participation in activities should be required for graduation. All present agreed that activities would be productive of

the desired results only if students participated voluntarily. The methods to be used to convince students that they should participate became the crux of the problem.

Many specific techniques to this end were suggested but the group always returned to the idea that effective personal counselling in the freshmen year, preferably before registration, was the key. It was pointed out that if administration and faculty, as well as personnel staff, were all agreed upon the importance of extracurriculum education, sufficient influence could be brought to bear upon all students to assure widespread participation. Freshmen orientation programs, activities weeks, convocations, and assemblies were all accepted as important devices to stimulate interest and accomplish group counselling in this area. The group was unanimously agreed that wherever possible freshmen orientation courses should be required for the entire freshmen year, with or without credit. Such courses would include counselling with respect to the activities program as well as many other features of college life not included in the agenda of this group.

The problem of participation has a negative side. Some of the more aggressive students need a restraining influence. Each campus has its few who are "in everything". In most cases such students unwittingly are substituting quantitative values for the more significant qualitative ones. The members of the group agreed that scholastic eligibility requirements are valid for positions of leadership. They rejected such requirements for participation in the membership of organizations. Point systems are used by some to restrict participation within reasonable limits, though none found such systems entirely satisfactory. Variations of the point system, especially the classification of activities and positions as major and minor which impose some "ceiling" on participation were accepted as workable. Again, however, reliance on effective counselling was considered better than arbitrary systems of control.

Special Problems of Student Government

Although "student government" activities and organizations are but one phase of the entire activities program, they have historically involved special difficulties. This seems to be particularly so in the postwar period. These special difficulties seem to stem from two considerations. Realistically it is recognized that the government of a university is legally vested in a Board of Trustees and certain designated administrative officers. Within certain limits, Boards of Trustees are authorized to delegate some power to administrators, to faculties, and to a very limited extent, to students. The area of authority which can be legally delegated to students is in nearly all cases very restricted. It is so restricted in fact that the very name "student government" is to a considerable degree a misnomer. Except in a very few

instances students do not actually govern themselves and legally cannot be given authority to do so under existing legislation or charters. This basic contradiction between the realities of University Government and the implications of the name of the student activity is very directly a contributing factor to the special problems in this area.

This is further complicated by the fact that there is inherent in American psychology the strong impulse toward self-government. Students with some reason, ask how we can teach them to be effective citizens in a democratic society if we do not permit them wide responsibilities for their own government. Emotionally they are motivated to ask for prerogatives which they are frequently not ready to exercise with responsibility and effectiveness. An extreme, but significant indication of this fact is the statement of a student's "Bill of Rights" and other items contained in the constitution and bylaws of the National Students Association.

The advisers to "student governments" are faced with a serious dilemma which challenges their initiative, tact, understanding, and leadership to a degree not duplicated in any other area of the activity program. Participation of students in the activities termed "student government" is for the same purpose as participation in any activity, namely, to secure experience which will result in growth of personality and social effectiveness.

Yet, if the adviser to the "student government" asserts himself to the same degree and in a manner similar to the coach of an athletic team, the director of a glee club, orchestra or band, the adviser to the debate club, etc., he and his students alike feel that he has intruded. It is educationally indefensible for an adviser to "student government" to be prevented from the same kinds of criticism, challenge, and influence which are deemed essential in all other areas of the activity program. Obviously we need a new orientation in this whole area.

The members of the group were unanimous in suggesting that new nomenclature would be helpful. Real "student government" does not, and currently at least, cannot exist. We can have and would benefit from "student participation in university government". This is not a quibble. If we can accustom all personnel in a university organization, students, faculty, administration, trustees, alumni etc., to this newer concept progress can be made. Students can be taught how to participate in the university community so that educational values will accrue to a degree not presently realized. Universities will have the benefit of student initiative, criticism, and constructive ideas which are certain to influence faculties and administrators to make more realistic decisions with respect to curriculum, evaluation of effectiveness of faculty, general university policies, student services etc. Most important, university government will be recognized by all as a cooperative enterprise in which students can learn to accept a certain

amount of mature leadership and criticism while faculty and administration can learn that student criticism and suggestion can be constructive as well as annoying. This would seem to be an excellent time for converting the usually sterile "student government" pattern into a more vital one. Student participation in university government can have real meaning. Students need to learn that influence is power. Faculty and administrators need to learn that students can supply a great resource of power for progress in education once their influence in basic matters of university policy is accepted as proper and constructive.

The N.S.A. (National Students Association) is of interest to all who have responsibilities for advising student leaders. The general attitude of the members of the group was that this organization up to now had successfully weathered the natural difficulties of an undertaking of this kind in days of abnormal tension. There was genuine concern, however, for the future. If continuity is a problem on individual campuses it must be recognized that it will be an especially stubborn one in an organization of such magnitude. It was recognized also that there is some danger that N.S.A. might try to impose a national pattern of "student government" and a national ideology of student life. Such a development would be unfortunate both for the institutions and for N.S.A. Local differences are usually elements of strength, not of weakness. Any attempt to insist that only one pattern is valid or acceptable would be doomed to failure and would certainly insure widespread opposition to the N.S.A. organization. The financial difficulty seems to pose a dilemma. Should the organization be incapable of financing itself adequately it might easily become dependent upon "angels" who might have an ulterior purpose. On the other hand, if fees are too high many institutions will be barred from participation and in that case N.S.A. might cease to be representative of the college and university world. Generally speaking, there seems to be a prevalence of the "wait and see" policy toward N.S.A. on the part of college officers. This may be a good cautious point of view, but if there is too much caution direct aid may be given to those who wish to use this organization for their own ends. N.S.A. presents a real challenge to the educational leadership of our colleges and universities.

Et Cetera

At its concluding session the group surveyed the questions posed in the original agenda. Most of these were answered directly or by implication in the discussion of the fundamentals summarized above. One or two, however, were considered directly in the concluding session.

All present were agreed that any vital concept of education for citizenship makes it mandatory that students receive direct experience in the activities of the community in which the college or university is located.

While the college or university is a community in a sociological sense, it has many points of basic difference from the community in the geographic and political sense. It is in the latter that the students will live except for the four or more years of their student life. The community therefore must be used as a laboratory if the students are to be realistically trained for effective participation as citizens. Many extracurriculum activities of the campus can be geared into the life of the community so that the educational values of student activities can be significantly enhanced by community experience.

One question on the original agenda was directed toward the problem of minority groups on the campus. The members of Group H, who represented the widest possible range of institutions from the standpoint of race, religion, urban, rural, section, public, and private, etc., discussed this problem with complete frankness. No attempt was made to minimize the problem generally although several institutions represented reported that they had solved all difficulties to their satisfaction and in complete harmony with the principles of tolerance and equal opportunity. After extended discussion the group unanimously agreed that the elimination of the various racial, religious, and nationalistic distinctions can be accomplished only through the development of natural and wholesome relationships between people. It was recognized that this process would extend over a period of time but all were convinced that this was more effective and more consistent with the principles of American democracy than any attempt to find a "short cut" by legislation or by mandate.

In emphasizing the necessity for faculty participation in the activities program and the problems of evaluation, continuity, student participation, and the special elements in "student government" the group was of the opinion that its discussions had ranged the key elements. The discussions were general enough to be inclusive of the whole area and at the same time specific enough to give real practical assistance to all participating. Certainly the underlying theme in all of the deliberations was the notion that extracurriculum activities are educational in purpose and that all activity programs must be constantly evaluated and reoriented to accomplish the educational objectives.

Meeting the Special Needs of Veterans

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP I¹

Reverend John J. Lane, C.S.C.

Assistant Director of Studies, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Indiana

MORE and more the needs of veterans merge into our general educational picture and are indistinguishable from the needs of our other students. The highly specialized services developed in the days following the enactment of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act and dedicated almost exclusively to the service of the veteran are gradually being taken out of the Office of Veterans Affairs and consolidated with the student personnel services available to the entire student body. The trend is an encouraging one, for it means that the veteran is rapidly being assimilated into the educational program as an integral part of it, and that he is no longer regarded, as too many of us were prone to regard him, as a kind of foreign body in the untainted blood stream of our nicely organized system. He has, moreover, been a most welcomed addition to our student body, for his maturity and seriousness have caused educators to be more objectively critical of themselves, to examine with finer precision their offering to their students, and have shaken from them the complacency and security in which too often they were inclined to indulge themselves. That such results have been achieved in so short a time, with such little friction and without disruption of the academic way of life is a tribute both to the cooperative spirit of the larger number of our veterans and to the resourcefulness, patience, and realism of the educators. Both veterans and educators have contributed substantially to a further demonstration that cooperation, understanding, and a determination to resolve problems are still the avenue to mutual benefits. There yet remain, nevertheless, special problems to which educators will have to address themselves, some of them old and unsettled, some of them resulting from the progress which large numbers of veterans have thus far made.

Enrollment Trends

There appears to be general agreement that the peak in veteran enrollment has been reached and that there will from this time be a gradual decline at least in the junior colleges and liberal arts colleges. It is probable that the universities, particularly in their graduate schools, may still have

¹ Group I operated under the chairmanship of Victor F. Spathelf, dean of students, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

moderate increases in the enrollment of veterans, resulting from transfers for more specialized curriculums. The general decrease in registration may be arrested to some extent this fall by the release of the new veterans completing their eighteen months of service. An overall reduction of about one hundred thousand may, however, be anticipated.

Since by far the larger number of veterans now in school have cleared the critical hurdle between the freshman and the sophomore years, where drop-outs are largest, the mortality from academic reasons should be proportionately small. Nevertheless, cognizance is to be taken of the fact that many veterans have set their educational aims short of the baccalaureate degree, preferring to take only such courses as might fit them for a predetermined educational objective.

Another factor of considerable importance in the program of veterans' education is the exhausting of entitlement. While there is no indication that many veterans have yet been affected, the problem should become more acute in the next schoolyear. For some who are dependent entirely on the educational subsidy provided by the Veterans Administration, the end of entitlement will mean also the end of schooling, unless the educational institutions are prepared to offer substantial scholarships in large numbers. It does not appear that government scholarships will be available in time to alleviate the situation for many excellent scholars.

Guidance, Counselling, Advisement

The emphasis given by the Veterans Administration counselling in the determination of educational and vocational objectives, and the excellent results achieved through the guidance centers established at many schools have gone far toward removing the prejudice and scepticism of school administrators and faculty members in regard to programs of this sort. So complete has been the change from scepticism to acceptance that most schoolmen now regard the guidance center as a most effective ally to the academic program.

Although the Veterans Administration has indicated that the guidance program will be the last to feel the heavy hand of retrenchment, it would be well for the college administrator to begin planning now for the direct support of highly developed counselling services after the government subsidy is no longer available.

Some institutions of higher learning are already preparing to open the facilities of their guidance centers to their local communities, and it would not be amiss for others to follow their lead in civic service. In one state at least there is already a movement afoot to place guidance programs in the State Department of Labor, and unless the colleges accept their full

responsibilities in this regard, they may by default pass this function on to other agencies more keenly alive to the service to be rendered through it.

Placement

Although the Veterans Administration frequently assists in the placement of graduates, particularly those who have completed their courses of study under the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, it has no specific mandate to do so. The recent cuts in personnel will result in further curtailment of this already severely limited service. Thus it devolves upon other agencies, including the school, to see that the veteran obtains suitable employment in line with the education he has been given. Failure of these agencies to accept the responsibility might well go a long way toward vitiating the P. L. 346 and P. L. 16 programs.

Although the problem of placement is not yet particularly acute, it will rapidly become so as thousands of veterans complete their formal education. The numbers involved, the married status of men who have not yet begun to earn a living, and in many cases the severe physical disabilities of those seeking positions will tax the resourcefulness of the educator and the professional placement officer.

There seems to be general agreement that, while the responsibility is great at the local level, there will yet be need for coordinated and well articulated efforts at the state, regional, national, and, perhaps, even international levels as well.

One of the most urgent needs of the moment is accurate, up-to-date information on positions available to college-trained personnel. State employment services generally have at hand listings of jobs for those with technical and semi-technical skills, and through long experience they are familiar with the demands of employers in their areas. The highly-trained professional staff needed for the proper placement of college graduates and the type of information required to put the proper man in the most suitable opening are not so readily to be had.

Perhaps the most effective division of labor between schools and government agencies in the field of placement would be to have the schools do the highly specialized work of testing and guidance. Since they are most familiar with the capabilities and interests of the students, the schools should also assume the burden of seeing that the veteran is placed in the position which will give greatest scope for the use of his particular talents and which will offer him the greatest prospect of a successful career. To the government agencies should fall the duty of collecting, classifying, and distributing to school placement officers data on employment prospects.

There is serious need also for the type of study that will provide long-

range projection of employment prospects, so that students entering colleges may in a general way, at least, prepare for the opportunities likely to be vouchsafed them on their graduation. The Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association might render a very valuable service by setting up a permanent committee to foster such studies and to coordinate the efforts of the groups engaged in them. It is extremely important that local, regional, state, and federal groups interested in this function be not permitted to lapse into an isolationism that would to a large extent render their labors unproductive and leave the many critical problems of placement unsolved.

It is recognized, none the less, that no amount of planning or organization will be fully effective unless there is cooperative effort within the schools themselves. They will need to pool their total resources toward meeting a progressively more difficult problem, if they are not to fall short of the trust placed in them.

Professional and Graduate Study

Whether or not the veterans will flock to the graduate schools in such numbers as to hamper rather than promote their effectiveness is a matter of conjecture. Although the graduate schools have expanded to meet a growing need there is no present indication that they are being swamped with applicants. Graduate schools should in general be able to meet the demands made upon them.

Graduate work is, however, extremely expensive and by its very nature incapable of being given on a mass production basis. Selection is, therefore, of the utmost importance if the graduate schools are not to fritter away their resources in unprofitable undertakings. Whether or not the Graduate Record Examination should be used is, of course, an administrative matter which each institution must determine for itself, but certainly it seems that some screening device will be necessary.

At the same time that care is taken to admit to graduate schools only qualified students, every effort should be made to assure the best students the opportunity of continuing their studies for advanced degrees. This is a responsibility that the Veterans Administration leaves strictly to the schools. It will not hinder the P. L. 346 student from going as far as possible with his studies, provided he has the necessary entitlement, but it offers to the P. L. 16 student only the minimum amount of education necessary to make him employable. In many cases this minimum, as in the case of the student who desires to make teaching at the college level a career, is far short of the requirement for permanent employment. This is not a criticism of Veterans Administration policy, which is based on the defensible premise that improvement beyond minimum employment requirements

ought to be left to the veterans initiative and ingenuity, but it does again indicate that encouragement of graduate study rests almost exclusively with the educator.

Relations With the Veterans Administration

Not inconsiderable improvement has been noted in the functioning of both the policy making and administrative end of the Veterans Administration. The schools, too, have gone far in the direction of greater efficiency in handling veterans and their problems. Much, however, is still left to be desired.

The recent cuts in Veterans Administration personnel seem to have fallen most heavily upon the service that was of greatest benefit to the student and the school, and that went furthest toward promoting efficiency and economy in the administration of the educational program. Over the protest of the schoolmen most closely associated with the veterans programs training officers have been removed from the college campus and have been expressly forbidden to render the services they formerly gave to students under P. L. 346. Again a service that properly belongs to the Veterans Administration has been thrust back upon the schools, which are faced with the alternative of providing additional staff to assist veterans in handling delayed subsistence payments, or of leaving the veteran to the discouraging program of writing endless letters which apparently effect nothing at all. A resolution addressed by the Department of Higher Education to the Veterans Administration requesting the continuance of training officers on the campus has been to the date of this writing entirely without result.

The delay of subsistence payments is still a vexing problem for both schools and veterans. The hope that time and experience would eliminate this problem has proved futile. The greater part of the difficulty apparently results from inefficiency in handling correspondence and from no inconsiderable apathy toward the effect on the veteran's education. The matter is an internal one of administrative procedure in the Veterans Administration, but its deleterious effects on the whole of the educational program are felt. Someone has pointed out that, "a crying wife is worse than a crying child." Yet nothing produces discord in the family more rapidly than the failure of the bread-winner to provide promptly the cash required for immediate necessities. The payment of subsistence when due should be not only the serious concern of those responsible, but a firm determination as well. Thus far there has been much more concern than determination.

The overpayment of subsistence because of failure of schools to report withdrawals promptly—or in some cases of the Veterans Administration to take cognizance of the reports made—has created an undesirable situation of some magnitude. While it is recognized that some overpayment is

unavoidable, there is no doubt but that responsible making and handling of reports could reduce to a very small fraction the overpayments now being made.

It does not appear that the Blakewell Sub-Committee of the House Committee on Veterans Affairs has made any substantial contribution toward the solution of the problem of overpayment by its recommendation that schools be required to report absences of veterans. The carrying out of this recommendation would seem to make the situation worse. There would certainly be no improvement, as a result of the added burden, on the part of schools whose administrative machinery is not now functioning smoothly in this regard, and schools now able to handle withdrawals accurately and promptly might find themselves completely bogged down by a clumsy and unwieldy procedure. How the Veterans Administration, which maintains that it is already crippled by cuts in personnel, might take care of an influx of absence reports provides matter for some interesting speculation.

The fact, however, that the Veterans Administration and the schools have not resolved all their problems, or even that they do not always agree on what constitutes a real problem, is not in any sense a reflection on either of them. That they have continued to work together cooperatively for the good of the veteran despite their many disagreements on the detail of policy and administration is a tribute to their sincerity and patience and their earnest desire to see a tremendous task well done. The point to be emphasized is not that they have disagreed, but that they have agreed so well.

THE HISTORY OF THE
CITY OF BOSTON
FROM THE FIRST SETTLEMENT
TO THE PRESENT TIME
BY
JOHN B. BOWEN
OF THE CITY OF BOSTON
IN TWO VOLUMES
VOL. I.
BOSTON: PUBLISHED BY
J. B. BOWEN, 1845.

PART III. CURRICULUM

The Coordination of Professional and General Education

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP J¹

Markham Peacock, Jr.

Professor of English, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Virginia

WIDE agreement prevails that man requires more education than the restricted training of the modern professional school provides. The professional, civic, and personal potentialities of an individual are not adequately developed in such narrow confines. To the necessary training for work, therefore, complementary elements must be added to fulfill today's conception of general education. This broader view stresses the close inter-relationship of man, government, and education. The notion of this inter-relationship is old and recurrent: from Plato, the intellectual aristocrat, through Matthew Arnold, the reluctant liberal, into modern days, men have variously interpreted and preached it. The practice in mass-education is yet to come. The needs of the time, however, press for practical application of the theory. Many feel that, unless the schools train an electorate whose vote reflects enlightened, conscientious interest and opinion, democracy dies at the polls; and, unless educative processes nurture the individual's capacity for appreciation, virtue, and wisdom, the individual does not attain the human dignity which democracy came to protect. It would be a lamentable outcome for the schools of a nation that had realized the noblest governmental concept in man's history to betray that concept. Consequently, the responsibilities of educators are tremendous; tension and insomnia have become occupational diseases among schoolmen. There is gratifying proof, however, that professional men and associations realize the disastrous exclusiveness of specialized training. Statements from many professions evince increasing concern for the entire development of man. The professions wish to begin the restoration of man, to put the pieces together again. The fragments have not worked efficiently.

Definition and Aims

The members of this group did not agree on a definition of *general education*. To the rather widely accepted statement from the University of

¹ Group J operated under the chairmanship of R. R. Hamilton, dean, College of Law, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

Minnesota, "It is the preparation designed for the non-specialized, non-vocational phase of living in a free society," some members objected. In fact, since the curriculum committee of each college had set up its own list of general education aims, only an inductive approach could bring forth any acceptable generalization or definition. This group, however, found no brief, satisfactory generalization; only lengthy, involved analyses in the form of purposes and objectives emerged.

It was not essential, however, that a specific definition be forthcoming, so long as the group recognized and agreed on the aims of general education. The group, therefore, turned gratefully to those aims laid down by the Conference in 1947 (*Current Problems in Higher Education*, p. 77). These, or like aims, provide working principles to guide faculties in devising and testing curriculum programs.

General Education for All

Certainly these eleven points laid down in 1947 carry the essentials of general education, which "no person can afford to be without." They bear the same significance for the professional and for the arts college student, since these objectives promise the development of human wholeness.

Although physicians, engineers, lawyers, and other professional men require different specialized training, as men they have the same problems and duties as other citizens and individuals. Wherein do they differ in general educational needs from other responsible men and other adequate personalities? Only by transmitting a common body of knowledge, traditions, and value judgments will schools produce a corporate citizenry aware of the heritage which fosters its institutions. The alternative menaces a cooperative society with ignorance and lawless individuality. Faith in the need for a centrality of standards and values enforces the belief that general education objectives do not vary for the different professions.

Professional Opinions and Problems

For some time professional men have condemned substituting depth of training for breadth of education. The flood of disapproval is reaching its crest. Already, the Inter-Professions Conference on Education for Professional Responsibility has considered the topic, "Education of Professional Students for Dealing with Human and Social Problems, for Leadership and Public Opinion, and for Humane Living." The desire to strengthen general education in professional curriculums is evidently not peculiar to one profession; it is an inter-professions objective. Individually, too, the societies and organizations of each profession have spoken out strongly and wisely on the necessary additions to specialized preparation. The requisite, they say, is general education.

More specifically, in medicine the breach between the proponents of the art of medicine and of the science of medicine is closing. The two views are more nearly one, now. Furthermore, medical educators prefer to think of their pre-professional training as more general than specialized, as designed for men and not solely for specialists. Dr. Fred C. Zapffe, Secretary of the Association of American Medical Colleges, presumably, had that idea in mind when he wrote the first and third sentences quoted below:

This Association is solidly opposed to the term, and everything that savors of 'premedical.' All we ask for is a foundation on which we can build. This foundation is equally valuable in the pursuit of any other objective besides medicine. The requirements—two years of college work to include one year each of English, physics, biology and inorganic chemistry, and one half year of organic chemistry—are fundamental to a basic education. We do not suggest more science, but we do urge . . . cultural subjects.

This statement is representative enough for the profession, though some might differ with a few of the details. To the quoted passage, one might add Dr. M. M. Weaver's "Education for the Practice of Medicine," *School and Society*, February 28, 1948, p. 146 (for quotations).

Dr. Weaver, a medical dean, is especially to be praised for not arguing that general education will make the student a more efficient specialist, but a more effective person and "a good citizen," requiring "an acquaintance with his cultural past. This is most likely to be developed through his general education and therefore the latter is the foundation for the study of medicine." He regrets that nonmedical counselors often advise premedical students to take their electives, not in general education, but in more science courses. He argues that "Some of this [scientific] material is later given detailed consideration in the medical course, and, in any event, undue concentration upon it usually represents time which could have been better spent in the humanities." He speaks also of his fear that the doctors of the future will be "trained" but not "educated." In contrast to training, with its emphasis on skills and techniques, all types of education "should promote the development of mental and moral powers to the maximum." Also, education "embraces culture, with an attendant fineness of feeling and of social address and consciousness." Dr. Weaver has expressed views frequently held by many members not only of his, but also of other professions.

Of course, the premedical student should now have an opportunity, with three or four preparatory years, to secure a liberal education in addition to training for a profession. Some college faculties protest, however, that a preponderance of scientific courses, taken by the student reputedly to gain readier entrance into a medical school, nullifies the chances of a liberal education. Although medical deans, teachers, and practitioners call for broader premedical education, as President James Conant has said ("College

Education for the Future Doctor," *Journal American Medical Association*, Vol. 112, p. 1655), "Very few people believe this group of distinguished witnesses—least of all the students." One of the chief complaints comes from "the apparent failure of the medical schools to clarify their own desires with regard to even the minimum premedical requirements." To illustrate this complaint, one can say that, to Dr. Zapffe's list, above, of minimum requirements for premedical training, many medical schools would add qualitative and quantitative analysis, and another half-year of organic chemistry.

The length of this seemingly disproportionate consideration of the medical profession is justified because arts colleges are remonstrating similarly against the disparity between theory and practice in all the professions. The arts colleges wish the specific and the general requirements to be more uniform, and to be stated clearly in each professional school's catalogue. Once the college understands the minimum requirements, cooperation with the medical schools on a general education program can begin.

In engineering, professional education more than any other matter concerns writers and speakers. Recognizing the engineer's obligations to society, these speakers and writers seek means to provide humane knowledge and to create attitudes essential to citizenship. W. E. Wickenden's *The Second Mile, A Re-Survey*, p. 8, points up this concept impressively; in contrast to "technical training . . . professional education looks beyond to philosophic insights into the relations of mathematics and science as modes of universal human experience and to competent understanding of the social and economic forces set in motion by technological achievement." These qualities of mind and spirit are encouraged by other engineering educators, notably by Dean A. A. Potter, who also touches on the desirable development of the individual (see *Current Problems in Higher Education*, 1947, p. 96). From expressions in engineering journals, and from most statements on engineering curriculums, it is obvious that "The objectives of general education are desirable. . . ."

To supplement engineering training with general education offers exceptional problems. Only great sympathy and understanding from both the engineers and the liberal arts faculties will produce valuable coordination. First, the engineering profession, unlike medicine, law, and dentistry relies chiefly upon an undergraduate degree—limited usually to four years for professional and general education; second, the curriculums bear numerous scientific and technical courses, considered essential for professional training; and, third, engineering courses continually expand to receive the rapidly increasing scientific material which must be added, learned, and applied. Facing such obstacles, general education tends to become increasingly peripheral. The engineer desiring the values and benefits of a general

education and yet facing the prescribed technical prerequisites of his curriculum may decide that he must choose between general education and professional training. No such dilemma need arise, however, if any credence is to be given to remarks of engineering research men and executives, of industrialists and scientists, who claim that thoughtful revision of engineering curriculums, with consequent technical pruning, will make space for general education. Of course, these same men often make curriculum revision sound simpler than their actual demands of engineering graduates will permit. First, these industrialists stress "the importance of fundamentals and the need for reducing emphasis on specialization." The larger industries plead for more pure science and less applied, arguing that they will relate the broad scientific knowledge to the specialized task in their post-college training of engineering graduates. All the smaller industries, however, do not have post-college training programs. Second, other technical leaders suspect a tendency to carry scientific laboratory work into the vocational, where every known application of a scientific law is made. They claim that the schools are attempting too much, and more than is necessary. This extended application is not only impracticable but also impossible. While a student is writing his final examination, new applications of scientific laws are being discovered. If he understands the principles of the science involved, he will encounter no difficulty in understanding the new application; if this were not so, professional men would never dare leave college. Finally, and this objective is the basis of the first two industrial views, industrialists are pleading for the type man only general education can develop, not the type only expert knowledge and technical proficiency can produce. Out of war and postwar experience, President Truman feels so keenly on the matter of general education that he has publicly said, "there is a critical shortage of . . . men who possess the capacity to deal with great affairs of state." Though the government has long relied on professional men to perform specialized tasks, the President added, "We need men who can turn a group of specialists into a working team and who can combine imagination and practicability into a sound public program." Any number of industrial and professional leaders have expressed similar opinions before, during and since the war.

This disproportionately lengthy statement is not aimed solely at engineers, but at all professions. The same general criticisms are being made of their colleagues by the leaders in all professions and specialties. Against graduate school specialization in mathematics, history, economics, English, and all other fields, the harsh, accusing voices rise. Further, the industrialists are not condemning engineering faculties but seeking to help these faculties remove the deterrents to general education for engineering students.

Granting, also, that the industrialists have somewhat oversimplified the

correctives for engineering curriculums, are their suggestions not worth testing? For, even though they should prove only partly effective, enough time still might be saved to insure general education along with engineering training.

In dentistry, the minimum requirement of sixty semester hours, or two academic years, of liberal arts must include "one year's credit in English, in biology, in physics, in inorganic chemistry, and a half year's credit in organic chemistry." The Council on Dental Education permits predental students with a near-B average after three or four years in an arts college to eliminate the biology and physics requirements. Only about half the schools, however, "observe this permissive regulation," according to "Dentistry as a Professional Career," edited by Harlan H. Horner, Secretary to the Council on Dental Education, who explains (letter of April 12, 1948) that "the Council's permissive regulation . . . is based on the assumption that thorough scholarship in liberal arts studies is of even greater significance than mere credit in specified subjects." This makes good reading, and it may persuade the 49 percent who take only two year's predental training to extend their period of enrichment to three or four years.

Two observations on minimum premedical requirements are sometimes made of predental requirements. For the two-year preparatory period, some dental schools prescribe scientific and technical courses beyond the prerequisites sanctioned by the Council on Dental Education. Furthermore, the predental, like the premedical students, often substitute additional science courses "recommended" by a dental school for the general education electives favored by the Council.

If the Council, working on a national scale with the predental colleges, could more definitely prescribe general education requirements, as they have the scientific, the above observations could no longer be offered. Of course, some flexibility in the prescriptions is imperative. Since the individual student's needs and local situations necessitate variations in any scheme, the regional arts and professional colleges must adjust to local conditions. There would, however, be little place in the curriculum for a particular dental school's "additional science," or "recommendations," and so the predental college would have more adequate time to effect general education purposes. At present, the predental student, having satisfied his scientific prerequisites and having no definite general education aims, may choose lazily among the many courses open. Because they are only seeking predental credit-hours to enter the dental college, many students do not ask questions about the value of their elective courses to fulfill broader needs. Under the present conditions, what can the predental faculty do? The choice of courses is left mainly to the student. On the other hand, dental schools and societies' stamped approval on groups of courses in the general educa-

tion area will enable the predental faculty to exercise some control over a student's courses according to his needs. Distribution and limited guidance should supplant concentration and uncontrolled election. With restricted time available for broader education, few students can afford to trust their judgment, as the full elective system permits. In conclusion, this last suggestion for more definite expression on general education aims from the dental groups is also offered to the medical and law associations and schools.

In law, the "Council does not prescribe the substance of prelegal curriculums," says Mr. John G. Hervey, adviser, Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar, American Bar Association, in a letter of April 16, 1948. Mr. Hervey stresses the value of the English language and grammar, and of the "non-scientific academic" degree in prelegal training; and adds that, therefore, the law school accrediting agencies are seriously considering a prelaw requirement of three years.

The frequent practice of combining degrees is meeting some disapproval from deans of law schools. In order to secure an arts and a law degree in five years, the student uses the prescribed courses in the law curriculum as electives for the arts degree. Hence, the arts degree represents over-specialization in the legal field in lieu of broadening influences in the general education area.

Of course, the simplest solution will come when the Council on Legal Instruction "does . . . prescribe the substance of the prelegal curriculums." If the Council, working with the arts and business administration colleges which provide prelaw training, should draw up more explicit requirements for the prelegal period, broader education would become a more important element in the legal curriculum. Although a corresponding suggestion was offered the Council on Dental Education, it is even more strongly urged upon the Council on Legal Instruction, which tends to leave general education for its students too much to chance. Naturally, this Council has excellent ideas on the subject. Unless these ideas are expressed, however, the prelegal student will often feel that, not general education aims, but the prelegal time requirement—two years as an "aging process"—is all-important. This statement is not true of all prelaw students, and it is not true that all prelegal colleges will permit indiscriminate selection of courses to satisfy the two-year rule. Yet, the liberal arts colleges know that the professional authority of the Council can best motivate a more purposive program. Therefore, for the reasons stated above, with reference to the dental groups, the arts and business administration colleges would be grateful for more enjoining general education requirements for the prelaw students.

Among business, commercial, and conservation experts, among osteopaths, nurses and broadcasters, among teachers, theologians and librarians, the same

limited training withholds the benefits of broader educative processes, but these professions, too, seek to break out of their restrictive bounds.

Though the perplexing details and individual problems impeding the coordination of general and specialized instruction vary among the professions, the reasons and desires for uniting the two types of instruction do not. The periodical literature of each profession expresses confidence in general education to promote professional success, to expand societal understanding, and to nourish the individual.

Some Suggestions for Practical Coordination

Only through sympathy for the other's problems and aims can the junior and arts colleges and the professional schools effect closer integration of their educational programs. It is agreed that mutual understanding can be promoted by local inter-college discussion groups. Further, it is suggested that the National Education Association explore the possibilities of sponsoring regional conferences for improving integration of the educational plans of the arts and professional colleges. Finally, it is recommended that the Conference perpetuate Group J to continue its study of the bewildering problems of coordinating general and professional education.

Though the theoretical coordination of general and professional education has advanced on a national scale, the area in which to apply the theories—looking toward a national core of ideals and knowledge—is obviously the local. Once the local faculty groups show a willingness and desire to consider the objectives and values of general education, the next step is to adapt regional and national thinking to the immediate scene. Standards of scholarship and quality of instruction in regional high schools which furnish undergraduates to the university will naturally modify the shape of each college's general education pattern. At the present time, discouragingly few schools have advanced the cause of general education beyond theoretical bounds. Practical adoption of the theory is slight. The needs of the age demand a certain bold initiative on the part of both liberal arts (two- and four-year arts colleges) and professional schools.

To bring about the cooperative program, what can professional men already confident of the virtues of general education contribute? These men speak with great authority among their own kind. First, they can enlist any professional brothers who hesitate to accept the seeming encroachment of broader training on their specialization. The opinions of professional societies and of practicing professionals evoke fruitful response in the uncertain and hesitant. Second, they can increasingly support those who are calling upon a few professional accrediting agencies to liberalize their views on education. Some professional faculties, desirous of remodeling their curriculums, complain of stringent technical requirements laid upon them by

accrediting societies. Once these requirements are met by prescribed courses, little time remains for general education. Third, they can ask for a re-evaluation of professional curriculums with a view toward eliminating duplication and excessive laboratory and vocational training. Thereby, time for general education will be increased without reducing scientific or professional development. Fourth, they can strongly motivate the professional student's acceptance of general education objectives. Experienced in the professional needs of the practitioner, they convince students; whereas, the arts college teacher is occasionally suspected of merely trying to sell his wares. The arts college teachers should be responsible for giving interest and meaning to their courses; but, ideally, the professional course advisers should be responsible for creating in their students an understanding of the necessity for general education, and for arousing in them a willingness and a desire to submit to its disciplines. The professional advisers should be responsible for encouraging the acquisition of a core of unity, a homogeneous body of ideals, knowledge, and traditions, by all their students. The "life-career," or professional success, motive usually evokes profitable responses in men. But the professional adviser cannot—if he really understands them—relate the aims and benefits of general education exclusively to a specialty or profession. Though it is true that general education increases the vocational or the professional student's chances of success as a worker, as a research man, as an executive, or as a practitioner, too much emphasis on these aspects obscures the aims of general education for enriching the personality and expanding the social consciousness of man. Thereby, *general education* becomes a misnomer. No coordination is possible. Consequently, professional men must also speak to their students on matters more important to humanity than any specialty.

In addition to these possible contributions, the professional faculties are partly satisfying some general education aims in their specialized courses. This fact will emerge when the inter-college discussions turn to definite means for bringing about more liberal education. For example, "Development of intellectual curiosity, competence, and maturity"; "Establishment of the habits of reflection and reasoning necessary to reach valid judgments about man and the physical world"; and "Understanding of the influence of science on the development of contemporary thought and institutions" are objectives which in part may be achieved in certain professional courses. More will be said later about the professional teacher as a potential imparter of general education through his handling of technical subjectmatter.

In the main, however, the liberal arts colleges have traditionally been considered the seats of general education, and they still do provide a very great share of it. Therefore, even heavier responsibility for a liberating educational program seems to lie upon them. Although they desire the

professional schools to express their aims and ideas and to share in the teaching which begets these aims, the liberal arts faculty is expected to prepare plans for effectuating general education. Yet, these plans must always be susceptible of gainful compromise and modification by the professional group. Two factors, however, disturb professional groups. First, they sometimes discover in the arts colleges only another kind of specialization, an over-emphasis on the departmental major, completely out of keeping with a proper general education philosophy. Professional faculties naturally cannot trust such schools to understand general education or to lead the way into a liberal program. Second, they sometimes find the arts colleges unprepared to institute a general education scheme for pre-professional students, unprepared to specify plans designed convincingly to fulfill acceptable aims. In two known instances, professional faculties, convinced of the value of broader training, suddenly agreed to double their previous allotment of general education time. Just as suddenly, the arts schools found themselves embarrassed with their new riches. Embarrassed because they realized that, though they had talked persuasively for general education, no local plan for applying the theory was established. Therefore, they had to resort to a capricious departmental approach—disapproved, as they knew, in the wisest current thinking on the subject of general education. Nevertheless, the new windfall of hours was spread rather blindly among the various departments in the arts college. Such tactics will be very harmful to the cause of broader education. Merely adding a course aimlessly to a general education plan disturbs any practical mind. More satisfying responses must be given to the professional course adviser's question "Why is this course being given?" than the answer "It is good for the student." Possibly it is, but the arts college should offer more reassuring answers, should even offer a detailed list of specific reasons. Vagueness about purpose only confuses. Confusion destroys general education aims. The purpose of the course must be definitely germane to the objectives of the training program.

No doubt, the two cases cited are highly exceptional. For the cause of general education it is to be hoped they are the first and last. Surely, the very capable faculties in liberal arts colleges will not allow their schools to be found unready to fulfill their liberating duties.

Finally, a liberal education cannot be left to chance. For example, it must not be supposed in this day of mass-education that general education aims will be accomplished: (1) by assuming the fulfillment of many of these aims in the pre-college period; (2) by merely assigning a number of course-hours to an arts college; (3) by delegating the responsibility solely to the professional schools; (4) by leaving too much responsibility either to professional or to arts college faculties; or (5) by relegating the responsibility

to the student's post-college period. Though each of these agencies and periods can account for its quota of general education, only by thoughtful planning—as to the specific part each is to achieve—will the arts and professional groups avoid the dangers of waywardly prescribing duties to courses which may not, and to a faculty which, alone, cannot satisfy the desired objectives. As for the periods preceding and following college, the local university, in laying out the general education program for each student, can test his achievement in the former period, and stimulate his achievement in the latter.

General education, the bulwark of democracy, will flourish, as will democracy, only through cooperative planning and execution by all people concerned.

Teachers and Courses

The success of a general education program still depends chiefly upon the courses of study, upon the men who devise them, and the men who teach them. And the greatest of these should be the teacher. If, however, graduate school instruction in the liberal arts fails to produce "broad men sharpened to a point," how can the graduates of these schools impress the professional colleges with talk of educational breadth? Also, professional faculties sometimes suspect the better liberal arts teachers of being so engrossed with their own student-majors that the general education courses for preprofessionals fall to the inferior instructors. Finally, the attitude that "anyone can teach freshmen" is most reprehensible. Some schools, however, delegate their superior instructors to freshman classes. Perhaps, a mean between the extremes is more desirable; of course, a scarcity of weak teachers is more ideal.

It is becoming more evident that the professional instructor has a general education mission, even a sacred duty, in his pure and applied science courses. His specialized material is as susceptible of expanded interpretation and pertinence as any other subjectmatter, especially, because science "has altered the intellectual climate of the western world," according to the Director of the Sheffield Scientific School, Dr. Edmund W. Sinnott, in "Science and the Whole Man," *Vital Speeches*, Vol. XIV, p. 112. The economic, social, political, moral, and spiritual climates, too, have been altered. Where scientific material bears implications, they should be demonstrated to the student. Ignorance of the relevance of these theories to life leads to irresponsibility in applying them.

The teacher should not fear students' censure that such treatment of scientific material is irrelevant to the purpose of a science course. It is the function of the teacher to persuade the student that such implications are opposite to the life of man and society, which students will understand to

be more significant than any specialized course or field. And, further, this type of teaching can accomplish its mission without surrendering the technical value of the course to its broader inferences; the conscientious teacher will never lose sight of his dual objective, will never sacrifice either, the specific or the general value, to the other.

Professional teachers can, likewise, demonstrate the place of philosophy, poetry, and the fine arts in nourishing and molding the individual. On the importance of these aspects of human endeavor, Dr. Sinnott (p. 116) quotes an authoritative voice:

A great scientist and thinker of today, President Conant of Harvard, points out how rarely in our daily lives we are influenced by the results of modern science, but how often we reflect in our acts the philosophy and poetry we have imbibed over many years. "A dictator," he says, "wishing to mold the thoughts and actions of a literate people could afford to leave the scientists and scholars alone, but he must win over to his side or destroy the philosophers, the writers and the artists."

Finally, professional faculties can strengthen general education by stressing the importance of an avenue to truth which eschews scientific method, logic, reason, and proof. Dr. Sinnott (p. 115-16) reminds his fellow-scientists that "Man, not matter, is the chief problem of the world today." But man's command of the material without appreciation of "the value of the immaterial things" gives him no mastery over himself and leaves him "but half a man. The greatest peril now is not from lack of education but from one-sided, partly educated men." This distinguished scientist pleads for recognition of another avenue to truth:

Around it have grown up the great tradition of the arts, the humanities and the religions, the ideals of freedom and of good will, and of the worth of man. Even in an age of science these ideas and values . . . are not only intellectually respectable, but must be cultivated vigorously if our civilization is to live. Man leads a double life, of mind and spirit. . . he must cultivate both parts of him.

. . . Let us face the fact that what the world must have is a fuller cultivation of those qualities which are best termed *spiritual*. . . The intellect is important in ethics and esthetics, but there is something in them deeper still which rises from within and is not subject to reason or to logic. Unless these inner forces can be tamed and cultivated till they will help guide our course, we shall destroy ourselves.

The much-abused survey course is still a mainstay of general education wherein economy of time is a controlling factor. If devisers of these courses analyze the aim to be achieved, and if each lecture, assignment, and problem leads toward fulfilling a specific aspect of this aim, there is no surer approach to certain phases of general education. By periodically weighing the effectiveness of the course, the planners can amend its faults. The integrated-surveys, especially, are evoking approval. In one type, several departments

contribute plans and materials for a course; the English, fine arts, and philosophy teachers, for example, may cooperate on a course to be taught by an English professor. In another type, the English, fine arts, and philosophy instructors may coordinate their efforts in the classroom. Naturally, this costly arrangement becomes practicable only with large lecture sections, but the simultaneous appearance of three authorities before the students seems to provoke favorable reactions. Unless, however, the three lecturers carefully rehearse their performance, confusion may prevail. In *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, p. 59, it is explained that general education needs new types of courses, drawing their "material from wider divisions of knowledge," and "embodying unusual combinations of subject-matter not closely related within the systematic, logical development of the subject, but intimately related to the psychological processes which human beings use in dealing with everyday matters." The older type of survey—full-bodied but often aimless—requires revamping before it will serve. Modified to exclude some material, to curtail memorization, and to increase command of principles and thought processes, it can resume its place in general education designs.

To advise limiting material or knowledge carries dangers. Educational extremists sometimes overstress techniques to the exclusion of subject-matter. One college president has gone so far as to say that knowledge is not important, that it does not matter what a student studies. Does a logical mind need to take even one step beyond this statement to find itself bogged down in absurdity? Fortunately, only one dean has announced that his school is not concerned so much with teaching law, as with teaching the student where to find it—as though training for the law were a kind of legal Easter-egg hunt. A course thin in content is unlikely to provoke depth of thought. There is no substitute for knowledge in professional or general education courses. The planners of the present survey do not intend to reduce the value of knowledge, only its extent. In fact, they hope to stimulate an extension of interest into the post-college period, wherein the graduate may apply the maxims, generalizations, and principles acquired in the survey courses to the material of later study and reading. But, realizing that modern man, unlike the genius of Vinci, cannot take the world of knowledge for his province, the devisers of a survey must be selective.

Conclusion

The chief impending challenges to the general education plans of liberal arts colleges appear in the area of personal enrichment. Recognition of the values of general development to professional success and to societal needs is strong but less emphasis lies on values accruing to the individual as an extra-professional being. Fresh motivation is essential in this direction if it

is believed that increased aesthetic appreciation and pleasure come to thoughtful, sentient men. Further, even when the necessary expansion of man's aesthetic nature is achieved in general education, the spiritual aspect—more significant and more difficult to satisfy—remains to challenge arts and professional faculties. The spiritual is the integrating force of the best in general education. It gives meaning and purpose to the intellectual and emotional natures of man. In fact, as Dean Clyde A. Holbrook says, general education "cannot rightfully be so called unless the ultimate questions of human nature, man's moral responsibility, and spiritual destiny are raised."

General Education in the Liberal Arts College

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP K¹

Hoyt Trowbridge

Professor of English, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon

What Is General Education?

AT THE conference in 1948, three groups dealt with problems of general education. One worked out its own definition of general education; another accepted a formula developed at the 1947 conference. The third group, whose discussions are summarized in the following pages, not only was unwilling to accept either of these statements but failed to reach any new definition acceptable to all of its own members.

This result has its comic aspects, but it was not due to mere obstinacy or incompetence. General education is a controversial subject; sooner or later, a candid discussion is bound to reveal important differences of opinion.

This diversity has many causes. One is the ferment and confusion of postwar readjustment in all phases of higher education. Another is the lack of communication, during a time of rapid and widespread change, between the separate colleges and universities. These two difficulties are diminishing. The tide of veterans, with all its attendant problems, has begun to ebb, and communication is improving rapidly, thanks to regional and national conferences, to the publication of reports on some of the new programs in general education, and especially to surveys such as Dean McGrath of Iowa has been conducting.

Other and deeper sources of division remain. Educational practice, in general education as in other things, is determined by the application of principles to concrete circumstances. But in this country there is no single generally accepted philosophy of higher education, and colleges and universities differ enormously in their legal and financial status, in history and geography, and above all in their students. In such a situation, differences of opinion are inevitable.

On some very general points there is no serious disagreement. Few would deny, for example, that general education is an important function of any collegiate program. It is the part of higher education which is considered to be useful and necessary for all, and as such is contrasted with

¹ Group K operated under the chairmanship of J. G. Lester, chairman, Curriculum Committee of the College of Arts and Sciences, Emory University, Georgia. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

the special training intended to prepare students for particular occupations. Its subjectmatter is the basic arts and sciences, and it pursues the traditional aims of the liberal college: to introduce students to the main divisions of knowledge and to prepare them for intelligent participation in the common affairs of life. In these respects, it is substantially equivalent to liberal education.

Insofar as it is new, general education is a reaction against abuses or excesses in collegiate education during the past forty or fifty years. It is a corrective movement, intended to establish a better balance between the liberal and the vocational elements in education, and within liberal or general education to provide a more coherent and adequate introduction to those arts by which men attempt to understand reality and to meet the problems of life.

Few would quarrel with generalities like these, but attempts to be more specific lead at once to disagreement. A concrete formula is certain to imply commitment to particular educational practices. Whatever these may be, some of them will be unacceptable to one or another educational philosophy, or unsuited to certain local conditions. In general education today, complete agreement can be reached only on the broadest generalities.

Four Patterns of General Education

If the attempt to reach complete agreement is abandoned, what emerges is not a series of irreconcilable individual positions but rather a bunching or gathering of opinions. Something like a series of parties can be discerned. Between these groups there is little consensus, but within each—though diversity remains—there is considerable agreement on the broader issues and some unanimity even on details.

The discussions at the 1948 conference seemed to reveal four such groupings. They might be described, for convenience only, as the "distributional" or "group requirements" party, the "remedial," the "practical," and the "theoretical or cultural." These labels should be taken with a grain of salt. They are meant as mere rough descriptions. The classification is probably not exhaustive; at least one conception of general education, the "individualized" method illustrated by some of the eastern women's colleges, was not represented in these discussions. It is intended merely to indicate some important schools of thought and to suggest crudely some main points of difference among them.

1. *The distributional plan of general education*—In most American colleges, the needs of general education are met by a system of "distribution" or "group" requirements. This is the standard practice, by all odds the commonest pattern of general education, and the other plans are best understood as deviations from it.

Under this system, students are required to take a certain proportion of their work in fields outside their major concentration. In most institutions, they are expected to have some training in each of the major fields—natural sciences, social sciences, humanities—but within each they are allowed to choose from a wide variety of single courses. In the purest examples of this system, all courses meeting group requirements are departmental; they serve both as a first course for future majors and as a last course (at least as the only required course) for the general student. Quite often, however, departments offer two introductory courses—one for future majors, the other for non-professional students. Both are accepted as meeting distribution requirements.

The worst enemies of this plan would concede that the needs of general students are sometimes very successfully met by such courses. An excellent example was described at the conference by Professor O. T. Koppius. This is a course in General Physics which has been offered for many years at the University of Kentucky. Paralleling the introductory course for majors in physics, it meets a group requirement in the physical sciences. Its purpose is to "create a better informed citizen who can intelligently follow developments in the field of physical science." It has been elected over the years by some thousands of students. The success of this course, Professor Koppius feels, has been the result of three things: a skillful use of demonstrations, special talent in the instructors, who must have not only a sound training in physics but also a wide knowledge of other fields, and finally the limitation of material to one science. This last is the very essence of the distributional point of view.

In spite of such examples, the group system has been much criticized. Three objections are most frequently urged against it.

In the first place, since this plan allows the student to choose one course among many alternatives in each field, it is obvious that few students will follow the same course of study. Students lose the advantages of common experience, and teachers of more advanced courses find no common foundation to build upon.

Second, it is evident that such a program introduces students to the species of science rather than its genera—to comparatively narrow fields rather than to broad and basic areas of knowledge. The intention is to represent the whole by a part, but the sample is often inadequate and misleading. Economics is one kind of social science, but it does not adequately represent the whole field; geology is a valuable study, but it is not sufficient as a student's only experience of the natural sciences. These subdivisions of knowledge, though essential to the advancement of science, obscure for students the unity of the larger fields. Even physics may be insufficient as an illustration of the physical sciences.

Finally, it is argued that courses under this system are not always taught in a truly liberal spirit. Where general students and future specialists take the same introductory course, the interests and needs of the specialists are likely to come first. And even when alternative courses are set up for non-professional students, they are often less satisfactory than the Kentucky course. The professional course is usually conceived as the norm, the only right way of teaching the subject. Too often, therefore, the general course is merely a watered version of the "good" one, and is taught as such with a kind of contempt as a necessary chore.

At best, critics of the distributional plan contend, this system is a mere palliative, a superficial patching in a program of education that is essentially specialized. Though it permits truly liberal education in individual cases, it does not systematically encourage and enforce it. Under this plan, many teachers feel, general education can be given only against the grain.

But none of these arguments is convincing to those who believe in the group system. Professor Koppius speaks for many others when he says that "a combination course with other sciences would cut the material so thin that in the end the student would have little of real worth." It is better to give a solid though narrower training than to gain breadth at the expense of rigor and thoroughness. Unless this objection can be met, the departmental courses of the distributional system will continue to be the pattern of general education in many colleges.

2. *The remedial conception of general education*—Of the new patterns to be discussed here, the most difficult to identify and describe is the remedial or corrective. As the name implies, a remedial program is intended to correct the deficiencies of students who come to a college or university with inadequate preparation. It provides training at a level below that of standard collegiate studies. Programs of this kind are seldom or never described in these terms, and are perhaps not often found as complete curriculums, covering all fields of general education. Rather they exist as implicit practices, frequently mixed with elements of a different kind.

For the existence of such programs there are very powerful historic reasons. The expansion of college enrollments has brought to many campuses students whose intellectual ability is below that of traditional college students. At the same time, revolutionary changes in high-school curriculums and methods of teaching have made it difficult or even impossible, in some places, for students to obtain the kind of secondary school training which standard collegiate courses presuppose. Under these conditions, many students who want to attend colleges are incapable of handling traditional college subjects.

As with other difficulties in higher education, the solution of this problem is determined in part by local conditions and in part by the educational

assumptions prevailing in each college. These things determine admission and dismissal policies, grading practices, and other matters which inevitably affect the curriculum. When students are admitted—either by choice or by necessity—who cannot read, spell, or add, they must be taught to do so in college. And since these skills are necessary to all, it is natural and defensible to teach them under the name of general education.

Programs of this sort are, of course, found in colleges with the most poorly trained students. One may suspect, however, that they are more widespread than is commonly supposed. In general, the degree to which a program of general education is remedial varies with the ability and preparation of the students who take it. Few colleges need to devote their whole program in general education to the correction of deficiencies, but many private colleges and most state universities have found it necessary to offer some courses of subfreshman grade. They are usually distinguished by various devices from standard college courses. Sometimes they are given reduced credit or none at all, and often they are demanded as additional work, outside general education requirements. But they are found in varying degrees in a very large proportion of American colleges, and they are increasing rather than decreasing.

3. *The practical conception of general education*—The two remaining patterns of general education are alike in their rejection of the distributional principle. In both, most if not all of the courses meeting general education requirements are interdepartmental. The curriculum is conceived as a unified whole, which is prescribed for all—at least for all liberal arts students. But the two plans differ radically in conception, content, and method.

Among the programs discussed at the Chicago conference, the clearest example of the "practical" conception was the curriculum in general education at Florida State University, Tallahassee. It was ably described by Professor W. Hugh Stickler, director of general education. In its main outlines, this curriculum resembles quite closely the programs of Stephens College and of the new Basic College at Michigan State. All three are indebted to the General College at the University of Minnesota.

The aim in programs of this type is to prepare the student for "effective personal and family living and responsible citizenship in a democratic society." They treat directly the problems of everyday living in the home and local community. Less rigorous than the introductory departmental courses which they replace, the general courses in these colleges are concrete and non-technical. They deal more with the present than the past, with facts rather than principles, with the results of scientific and scholarly study rather than its methods and assumptions. A place is made for art, religion, and philosophy, but they are taught in a popular and non-technical manner, as a

means to satisfactory personal adjustment. The main emphasis throughout the curriculum is social and practical.

Programs of this kind are intended to meet the objections made against the distributional system. Under this plan, most students take the same courses, and the courses themselves cover wider fields than the usual introductory courses. Since they are explicitly designed for purposes of general training, the general student is given an education suited to his needs. The great strength of such curriculums is their manifest relevance to the student's problems, their direct and immediate value for living.

In many colleges, however, such a program is vigorously opposed. Curriculums of this kind are intended primarily for the average student. In the opinion of many teachers, they are not good enough for the best students. Though they may produce decent and responsible citizens, the followers in a democratic society, such programs cannot provide the training needed by the creators, discoverers, and leaders—who are just as necessary in a democracy as in any aristocracy. Some critics would go still farther. They would hold that liberal education is by definition philosophical, a training in the intellectual virtues. If so, education of the practical sort is insufficient even for the average student. To those who hold these views, such programs are as unacceptable as the methods of Protagoras were to Plato, and for the same reasons. In some quarters, the practical conception of general education will always be resisted.

4. *The theoretical or cultural conception*—Programs of the fourth type are older than those of the third class. They first began to emerge shortly after the first world war. At Columbia University during those years there were two new ideas in liberal education—a course in "Contemporary Civilization," taught by men in the departments of economics, political science, and philosophy, and John Erskine's famous seminar in "Great Books." At about the same time, a course in science for general students, "The Nature of the World and of Man," was developed at the University of Chicago. Complete programs of general education, covering all fields, have gradually evolved from these beginnings.

At Columbia and Chicago, these programs are prescribed for all students in the liberal college. Elsewhere similar curriculums are offered on an elective basis; students may choose to meet college requirements either by the separate courses of the distributional system or by an integrated program to be followed as a whole. Such experiments, preserving the framework of group requirements, have been or soon will be carried out in the small "Directed Studies" program at Yale, the new two-year "Integrated Program" at Wisconsin, the "Experimental Program" to be introduced in the fall of 1948 at DePauw University, and several others. Some Catholic schools, such as La Salle College in Philadelphia and the College of St. Thomas in St. Paul,

have been experimenting along similar lines. The Harvard program, as described in the well-known *Report*, combines elements of the same kind with others carried over from the distributional plan.

To the extent that they belong to the fourth type, these programs abandon the elective principle. The curriculum in general education consists in the main of interdepartmental courses, and is the same for all students who pass through it. As in the "practical" programs, the course of study is conceived as a preparation for the activities and problems of non-professional life. But the approach to life is indirect, through principles and theory, rather than direct; practice is taught through the principles which control it. The aim is to develop the student's general culture.

The courses included in these curriculums are distinguished in several ways from the interdepartmental courses of the practical programs. Most of them are both planned and taught by men from several departments. The method is discussion in small groups, so that active participation by the students is possible. The courses do not attempt a complete coverage of the fields but illustrate their main features by concentrated study of representative topics; thus the whole is represented by a part, as must be done in any course, but the sampling is made on a different and perhaps sounder principle than in the separate departmental courses of the distributional system. Most important of all, perhaps, is the use of classic examples of thinking in each field—not only "Great Books" in the humanities, but masterpieces also in the social and natural sciences.

In the opinion of some teachers, programs of this kind offer the best hope for a sound development in general education. They seem to avoid both the narrowness of the standard introductory courses and the shallowness of the older type of interdepartmental surveys. In conception, at least, they meet the objections raised against the distributional system without sacrificing the thoroughness and rigor of traditional liberal education.

Yet many remain unconvinced. Programs of this sort involve many practical difficulties: a lack of appropriate textbooks, the expense of instruction in small classes, and perhaps most important, the scarcity of teachers equipped to teach courses of such breadth at the level such programs demand. On many campuses, general education of this kind is simply not possible.

There are theoretical objections too, especially from those who wish to extend the benefits of higher education as widely as possible. Can average students be expected to meet the standard set in these programs? Are they really the best sort of training even for the ablest and best prepared? For those who believe in education that is more directly relevant to life, training of this kind is too abstract and intellectual for students of any kind.

But perhaps the most formidable objections come from those who approve the intention but doubt whether it has been or can be realized. In the

humanities and the social sciences, it might be granted that combined courses may be as solid and rigorous as the standard departmental offerings. Among natural scientists, however, there is grave doubt; many would question whether the devices proposed—individual instruction, limitation of material to a few topics, the use of original scientific papers—are sufficient to preclude the thinness which a wider coverage seems to involve. Experiments along these lines may be watched with interest, but to many scientists the claims of the new program remain unproved.

We end, therefore, as we began. Higher education is passing through one of its periodic phases of change and reform. In this process, general education is a center of particularly vigorous ferment. The direction of change can be only away from the distributional system, the present standard method in general education, and towards either the remedial, the practical, or the cultural. Yet many colleges and universities, including some of the best and strongest, have reaffirmed their faith in group requirements and departmental courses. Where change does occur, it will most often be gradual; its tendency will vary—sometimes toward the remedial or the practical, sometimes towards the new sort of theoretical program—according to local conditions and the educational philosophy of faculties. In all this stirring of life and thought, only one thing is really certain: that general education will continue to be a controversial subject.

General Education for the Prospective Teacher

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP L¹

Warren C. Lovinger

*Associate Secretary, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
Oneonta, New York*

IN EDUCATION as in any field of endeavor the end-product is the result of careful planning and cooperation on the part of those whose work has gone into it. Before such planning and cooperation is possible, however, there must be a definite understanding of what characteristics the product is to possess. In other words, those who plan programs of education should decide at the outset upon the type of product which is desired and, with that specification ever in mind, proceed to organize the program which seems most likely to produce it. Since concern in this case is with general education for the prospective teacher and since general education is one phase of the program which must be provided for the prospective teacher, it will be necessary at this point to consider the teacher as the end-product and reach a decision in regard to qualities desired.

I. Portrait of a Teacher

What, then, are the characteristics which a teacher should possess?

As an individual the teacher should be a well-adjusted person who is able to realize the maximum of personal satisfaction from life and to contribute to the fullest extent of his capabilities toward the improvement of the society in which he lives. He has the same responsibilities and obligations as those which society places upon all other persons. For example, he must be able to participate in social groups of varying sizes and kinds from the small simple organization of the family to the large complex organization of government; he must have a satisfactory degree of competence in acquiring and using wealth; he must be able to communicate ideas; and, in general, he must be able to manage his own affairs in everyday life.

As a member of his profession the teacher should be an enlightened person of high ideals who possesses a thorough mastery of subject matter in the area of his specialization as well as an understanding and appreciation of relationships between that subject matter and the whole broad field of

¹ Group L operated under the chairmanship of S. M. Brownell, president, New Haven State Teachers College, New Haven, Connecticut. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

human knowledge, attitudes, and behavior. It is equally as necessary that he be highly skilled in the techniques of teaching and have a thorough understanding of the learning processes. His interest in children or young people of the age-level with which he works must be great, and he must be willing to accept a major share of responsibility in the induction of all youth into society.

In his entirety the teacher should represent the best possible blend of fine personal qualities and professional skill.

II. The Role of General Education in Producing the Teacher

A picture of the desired product has been presented but before general education can be assigned a role in its production it will be necessary to come to some agreement concerning the meaning of the term general education. Definitions are about as numerous as are articles and books which have been written on the subject. The difficulty involved in gaining group consensus on a specific definition can often be avoided by formulation of a statement which is general enough to include a variety of points of view and yet definite enough to encourage a meeting of minds. The following statement, a result of group thinking, will be used for that purpose throughout this discussion.

General education is that education which is designed to develop such "non-vocational" competencies as are suggested by the following partial list:

1. Participation in social groups of varying sizes and kinds, such as: family, neighborhood, community, government.
2. Intelligent acquisition and use of wealth.
3. Communication of ideas unhampered by gross errors.
4. Application of scientific methods and other systems of organized thinking to problem solving and generalizing.
5. Creation and appreciation of artistic production in accordance with esthetic principles.
6. Regulation of one's personal life for satisfactory emotional and social adjustment.

As these competencies are developed there will be coupled with them and arrive out of them such skills as:

1. The use of what is known about the way in which human behavior is motivated and modified.
2. The tendency to use and to improve these competencies in daily living.
3. The use of a clearly defined value system by which to judge the desirability of individual and social action.

Accepting the foregoing statement as an explanation of what general education is and bearing in mind the qualities which the teacher should possess, it is possible to see more clearly the actual role of general education in producing that teacher.

General education, though it is desirable and essential for everyone, is of critical importance to the teacher; since teachers teach *all that they are* at all levels of education. The level of teaching, whether it be elementary, secondary, or college, is not related to the kind or amount of general education needed by the teacher, but rather to the maturity level of the student to be taught. For instance, it is probable that young children will be more affected by the total personality of the teacher than will college students. This is, however, no reason for preparing college teachers less well. In other words, teachers must have good general education in order to properly fulfill their professional functions. The problem at this point is to discover where general education becomes professional education. It would be impossible to mark the exact point where this occurs. Instead, it seems wiser to recognize that there is a type of education which can definitely be called general; there is another which can definitely be called professional; and there is between these two a type which may be either, depending upon the professional needs of the individual concerned.

There is, then, a minimum level of general education which should be reached by all individuals. Certainly, a minimum level of the competencies resulting from general education must be established for the prospective teacher at the point of his entry into teaching, since at that point deficiencies become compounded in others. Any institution preparing teachers, therefore, must guarantee by its degree the possession of this minimum level of competencies. Furthermore, it is the responsibility of institutions preparing teachers to provide students with experiences which will enable them to achieve at least the minimum level.

This responsibility is twofold:

1. To provide experiences which are common needs of all prospective teachers, both in level and in kind.
2. To provide individual remedial instruction (or experiences) to overcome disqualifying deficiencies.

Institutions without proper facilities for correcting disqualifying deficiencies should not accept as prospective teachers students who possess such deficiencies.

General education for teachers, as well as for all others, is part of the continuous experiences of the individual. As such it can not be allocated to any given level or subject of instruction. To specify certain points in the college career of an individual at which he will begin and end his work in general education is to give him the impression that when the point of completion has been attained he is through once and for all. This is dangerous, since one of the chief purposes of general education in higher education, particularly for prospective teachers, should be the preparation of the individual for continuing his general education after he leaves college.

The important role which general education plays in the preparation of teachers has been pointed out. The practical problem which logically follows, however, is that of providing the quantity and the quality needed.

III. The Provision of General Education

The choice of a suitable program is of great importance in the provision of general education. One of the prime considerations in making this choice is the needs of the student. It must be remembered that by the time an individual enters college he has usually lived the greater part of two decades during which time he has been exposed to general education from a variety of sources. About all that the typical class of entering college freshmen, whether they be prospective teachers or otherwise, have in common is that they tend to fall within a given age-range and have, with few exceptions, graduated from high school. On the other hand, they have come from a number of school systems in which their educational experiences have differed greatly. The general education provided by home, church, community, and other such agencies has varied in amount and effectiveness. Add to these differences in background those of a still more personal nature, such as ability and aptitude, and it becomes apparent that although these students are exposed to the same program of courses, experiences, or problems they will not come out with the same attitudes, knowledge, and behavior. The individual is necessarily the integrating factor in any learning situation. The college can provide the opportunities for common learning through general education, but the effectiveness of the learning is dependent in a large part on what the student does with those opportunities and what they mean to him personally. The problem, then, is that of discovering procedures which will be most effective in providing all students with the experiences essential to general education and assisting these students in taking advantage of the experiences provided.

Responsibility for general education, however, can not be discharged by the provision of courses or activities alone. Attainment of the objectives of general education also requires faculty members who sincerely subscribe to these objectives and seek them in their teaching. The teacher can "make or break" any course or activity with which he is charged. There are several implications here which should not be overlooked. First, it is necessary that graduate schools, which prepare college teachers, place greater emphasis upon the preparation of those who are interested in general education and are properly equipped to work in that area. Second, promotion practices for college faculties should be revised to place a higher premium on good teaching, thus making work in general education more respectable in academic circles. Third, all faculty members involved in general education should

work together in organizing and carrying on the program. Programs which are superimposed by the administration have little chance of success.

Attention has already been called to the importance of both students and faculty in the matter of choosing procedures for providing general education. There is one other factor which must be noted. That is the consideration of facilities available. If a program of general education is to be successful in a given institution it will have to fit the physical plant and financial resources of that institution.

In view of the several factors which should be considered in organizing a program of general education it is obvious that no one plan or program is best for all institutions. There are numerous plans and programs being used at this time in various institutions throughout the nation. Many of these have been written up in considerable detail and involve procedures which might well be utilized by other colleges. Nevertheless, each institution should decide upon its own objectives of general education and organize a program which, in the light of all factors concerned, seems most likely to fulfill these objectives.

Furthermore, the acceptance of a given program or of certain procedures should not imply permanent retention of these. The best programs are flexible enough to permit experimentation, revision, and adjustment.

What has thus far been said concerning the provision of general education has been applicable to all colleges regardless of the professional or vocational interests of their students. This is appropriate, since general education for prospective teachers should not be different from that for other college students. Because of the close relationship between general and professional education for prospective teachers, however, it is often possible for institutions specializing in the preparation of teachers to integrate the two in such a way as to benefit the student professionally and yet permit him to work more extensively in general education. At any rate, it would seem that from three-eighths to one-half of the college program of a prospective teacher should be devoted to general education.

IV. Evaluation of General Education Programs

Closely allied with and indispensable to the development and improvement of programs of general education are systematic methods of evaluation. Any such system of evaluation must be based upon the objectives set for general education in the institution concerned and should give consideration to both immediate and long term results. No single criterion is adequate as the basis for evaluation. The undertaking should be cooperative in nature and use many sources of evidence. While giving due recognition to the prior and non-college learning of the student, it should be interwoven with the learning process.

The means to be employed in both immediate and long term evaluation will have to be developed over a period of time by those who are carrying on the program. Extensions, improvements, and modifications of such existing techniques as those suggested by the General Educational Development Tests, the Eight Year Study, and the like may well serve as the basis for a means of discovering the competencies of individuals in the area of general education. Any techniques which are developed, however, must be recognized as aids to the exercise of judgment and must not be considered as substitutes for judgment itself.

Immediate evaluation should be a part of the on-going program of general education and should give consideration to the effectiveness of all elements of that program as it proceeds.

Criteria helpful in immediate evaluation include:

1. Each individual should develop, through use, the competencies which are the objectives of the program. Opportunities for use of these competencies, therefore, should characterize the program and provide evidence for evaluation.
2. The facts, generalizations and other learning products should be pertinent to the types and the range of problems the student is being prepared to solve. No matter how the teaching is organized the learnings are recognized and acquired by the student as means to this end.
3. The program should provide sequential, cumulative experience in seeing and solving problems of the type which general education is designed to prepare students to solve.
4. Those methods should be employed which lead to formulation by the student of pertinent principles or generalizations.
5. Intermediate learnings should be significantly motivated for the student not only as units, but in the larger context of ultimate individual and professional adequacy.

Long term evaluation involves judgment of the effectiveness of the general education program through evidence of the competencies displayed by students and graduates of the institution concerned. Each objective of the particular general education program must be duly considered with a view to detecting the differences between what the program is supposed to accomplish and what it actually does accomplish. As procedures for conducting evaluation of this type improve through use and experimentation, it will be possible to develop norms and standards which will be usable in cases where the development of comparable competencies is an objective. That such evaluation will conflict with present grading practices is almost inevitable. In such cases the grading practices will have to give way if the evaluation system is to succeed.

Systematic evaluation, though it is an essential to any general education program, is even more necessary where prospective teachers are concerned. This is true because of the influence which teachers have upon the youth of the land. A faulty program of general education in a teacher preparing institution affects not only the students involved but also the pupils whom they will ultimately teach.

V. Summary

Since the teacher must possess all of the competencies resulting from general education, it is highly essential that he receive at least as much of such education as is considered essential to individuals of other professions or vocations. In fact, he should not be permitted to go out as a teacher until he has attained this minimum. General education for the prospective teacher should not be different in nature from that provided for other individuals. From three-eighths to one-half of the prospective teacher's college program should be devoted to general education.

Graduate schools which prepare college teachers should place greater emphasis on the preparation of teachers interested in general education. Colleges, through their faculty promotion practices, should give greater recognition to good work in general education.

Programs of general education should be the result of cooperative planning on the part of all faculty members concerned and should be made to fit the institutions in which they are to function. There is no one plan which is best for all. Programs of general education should be flexible enough to permit change and encourage experimentation.

Systematic evaluation is an essential part of any general education program. There is a special need for such evaluation, however, in institutions which prepare teachers.

Adaptation of Curriculum and Teaching to Contemporary Issues

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP M¹

Robert H. Moore

*Chairman, Division of Social Sciences, Illinois Wesleyan University
Bloomington, Illinois*

ADMITTEDLY, our nation and the world are faced with many problems of a serious and perhaps critical nature. Equally admissible is the fact that present-day college students are not sufficiently interested in and enlightened about these problems to participate in their solution fully and capably after graduation from college.

Although earlier periods in the history of the United States have been marked with problems seemingly insurmountable, in no earlier period have problems of such magnitude and variety existed as confront the people of this country today. Rapidly mounting divorce and juvenile delinquency rates threaten the family unit as the stabilizing basis of society. Inter-faith and inter-racial relationships are becoming increasingly productive of strife and ill will in the community. Such problems as control of crime, protection of minorities, and provision of equality of educational opportunities are becoming more and more serious at the state and regional level. Control of inflation, labor-management relations, national defense, establishment of a wise foreign policy are examples of perplexing problems in the national community. The questions of control of atomic power, modifications of sovereignty for the promotion of world peace, establishment of international security, world trade, and the readjustment of the thinking and acting of individuals as well as nations in a world community present challenges never faced before by American education.

It is not to be implied that contemporary problems are to be considered only by the college student or graduate. In a democracy it is the privilege and obligation of all persons to participate in the determination and carrying out of wise courses of action. However, the expenditure of millions of man-years of time and billions of dollars every generation on higher education will be completely justified only if college students and graduates bring to the solution of contemporary problems a wealth of information and a method of attack which will provide the leadership not usually attained by those with only a secondary school or elementary school education.

¹ Group M operated under the chairmanship of E. H. Hopkins, vicepresident, Washington State College, Pullman, Washington. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

A question that is often asked is whether colleges and universities can make any appreciable contribution before the most critical problems will have been solved or before world chaos will have resulted from the failure to solve these problems in time. The majority of college students are normally not of voting age. College graduates usually do not attain positions of leadership and influence until a few years after graduation. Clearly, direct action in dealing with contemporary issues must be taken for the most part by adults and must be taken before students presently enrolled in institutions of higher education have had time to assume positions of leadership. However, the indirect influence that over two million college students could have if those students were interested and enlightened is tremendous. Surely if the present generation of students were informed about contemporary problems and were intelligent in their approach to the study of the problems, a very much needed leaven in our national life would be supplied.

Fear is often expressed that if institutions deal with contemporary issues they will inadequately perform those important functions for which they have traditionally been responsible. Colleges and universities need to continue to teach students to express ideas clearly; to provide experiences in critical methods of work; to familiarize students with their physical and social environment; to acquaint them with great works of art, literature, and music; to provide pre-professional education, etc. But the introduction of experiences dealing with present-day problems and preparing students to cope with them intelligently need not result in the elimination of more traditional functions such as those mentioned above. Instead, the introducing of present-day problems should provide motivation and materials by means of which many of the most important of the objectives of institutions of higher learning might be attained more fully.

Contemporary issues may be introduced via two routes—the curriculum and the co-curriculum. Although the one often grows out of and merges into the other, for the purpose of discussion they will be dealt with separately. However, certain principles for the presentation of contemporary issues have been derived which apply almost equally well to study and activities in both the curriculum and co-curriculum areas. These principles are presented in list form for the sake of brevity.

Principles for the Presentation of Contemporary Issues

1. In the presenting of contemporary issues:

- (a) A critical analysis of related factual objective data should be included in accordance with approved principles.
- (b) Especial care should be taken to avoid distortion, ridicule, and expression of prejudice.
- (c) Opinion should be differentiated from other data.

2. In selecting the significant issues:
 - (a) Both courage and discretion should be employed.
 - (b) Due regard for the circumstances surrounding the issues and the institution should be given, but with a recognition of the need for increased directness and effectiveness in handling many modern problems.
 - (c) It should include a critical and rational treatment of all relevant factors, pertinent emotional elements, and appropriate courses of action.
3. Participation in determining issues:
 - (a) The group faculty should help determine the methods of presentation.
 - (b) Students should be encouraged to do their share of planning on significant issues for discussion.
 - (c) The group as a whole should encourage, whenever appropriate, the taking of action on contemporary issues, provided that such action is likely to contribute to the solution of problems or to the students' ability to deal with problems.

The preceding list is admittedly not a complete formulation of principles. It should, however, provide some guidance in dealing with modern problems in an effective and logical manner.

The Curriculum and Contemporary Issues

Curriculum provisions for the presentation of contemporary issues may be made in two ways. Conventional curriculums may be modified in such a way as to provide students with needed experiences in working with present-day problems. Or more far-reaching changes involving complete reorganization of curriculums may be brought about. Which plan is most feasible for a particular institution depends on a number of factors, including the type of curriculum organization now employed in the institution.

The adaptation of conventional courses can come about directly through instructional methods and indirectly through the philosophy and attitude of the instructor toward the problem and the students. Here, as in almost all other problems of higher education, the character and quality of the teacher is the key. This approach demands teachers who are fair-minded, who are not dogmatic, who respect and give opportunity for the utterance of the opinions of all students, who insist on thoroughness and a regard for data on the part of students. What the teacher is and what the teacher believes will either facilitate the accomplishment of or destroy any program.

The study of contemporary issues, if properly conducted, should prepare students for their present and future living as citizens in a democratic nation. If attempted through modification of conventional courses it should involve four elements.

1. Students should be helped to obtain the background understandings

necessary for an intelligent approach to the solution of present-day problems.

For example, an understanding of certain principles of sociology is needed for dealing with problems of divorce and juvenile delinquency. An understanding of certain principles of political science is needed for dealing with the question of world government. These understandings may be gained *as* a problem is studied or *before* it is studied, but they must be gained at some time if the problem is to be clearly understood.

2. Students should be helped to learn methods of attacking problems.

The teacher may make use of several approaches in developing the students' ability and disposition to use the scientific method (or the method of critical analysis) in attacking problems. He may get students to work on problems, insisting always that they make use of this method. He may illustrate how the method has been used by natural or social scientists, for example, in solving problems in the past. He may use the method himself in teaching his subject.

3. Students should have an opportunity, under the guidance of the teacher, to deal directly with the most crucial contemporary issues.

Thus students not only become enlightened about those issues, but they are enabled to put to work and refine their problem-solving ability and to enrich their background of knowledge and understanding.

4. Students should have the opportunity, whenever feasible, to engage in meaningful action growing out of the consideration of problems.

One danger in relying on conventional departmental subjectmatter courses to supply students with the needed orientation to contemporary issues is that not all students will have an opportunity to develop the abilities and understandings needed. By requirements or careful guidance, institutions should make sure that all students pursue a pattern of courses which will make such an opportunity available. (The pattern need not, of course, be the same for all students.)

In some institutions, contemporary issues will not be dealt with adequately until curriculum reorganization is effected. This reorganization may involve the introduction of new courses dealing more directly with present-day problems and, perhaps, dealing with material from several departments or divisions of the institution. Or it may consist of a merging of and change in the emphasis of several conventional departmental courses. In any event, colleges and universities are urged to consider the possible need for curriculum reorganization in the light of societal demands on young people of today and to adopt an experimental attitude toward such reorganization.

In addition to reorganization of the curriculum, institutions may find it necessary to develop new techniques of scheduling and instruction if modern

problems are to be dealt with satisfactorily. The case method, the workshop, the scheduling of large time blocks for consideration of problems, or the taking of field trips, and the development of broad experience units are only a few of the many little-used organizational and instructional plans that merit consideration.

Whether primary emphasis on contemporary issues should come in a student's lower-class or in his upper-class studies is a moot question. The development of interest in and ability to deal with problems and the acquisition of background information and understandings should certainly come early in the student's college career. The direct study of the larger issues confronting society should be carried on continuously, but such study will perhaps be most meaningful to juniors and seniors who are about to or already have attained full rights of citizenship and financial and legal independence from their parents.

Co-Curriculum Activities and Contemporary Issues

Extra-class activities are often a very vigorous and influential part of life on a college campus. As such, they present great opportunity for the enlisting of student interest in the problems of life outside of the campus and in preparing students to cope with these problems. There are myriad ways in which co-curriculum activities can contribute to the attainment of an understanding of contemporary affairs. Only a very few broadly representative activities will be mentioned.

The college campus can serve as a laboratory in community living. Of course, life on no college campus presents a typical pattern of community living. But many of the problems faced in real communities, whether the local or the world community, also arise in college communities. Students can learn much about presentation and coloring as well as the censorship of news by editing and reading college newspapers. They can operate campus traffic courts and learn something of the problems involved in the administration of justice. They can participate in student government and learn first-hand some of the difficulties in conducting elections, in securing representation for minorities, in enlisting college-wide interest and support. Through operating cooperative bookstores and laundries they can experience labor shortages and wage demands and different types of inflationary tendencies.

Enlightenment on current problems may be secured through the sponsoring of open forums or town meetings. Political leaders can be invited to present their views in student assemblies. Campus political parties corresponding to and supporting national political parties may be established. Clubs concerned with international affairs may be sponsored.

The presence on campus of students from foreign lands often stimulates interest in world affairs and affords an opportunity to diffuse information about the cultures of the lands represented. Some students from this country are able to travel or attend school abroad. They and the student with whom they come in contact after their return to their own institutions are almost sure to profit from the experience.

In inter-faith groups students gain an experience which should prepare them to understand and cope more intelligently with problems arising out of relationships among different religious groups. Likewise, the presence of students of different races on the campus provides an opportunity for better understanding of these different races and the development of better relationships among them.

Student participation in such activities as those mentioned in the preceding paragraphs may or may not be productive of entirely desirable results. A wide variety of activities already exists. The way in which these activities are conducted determines the results which accrue. If many students are given an opportunity to exercise real leadership and are led to realize what leadership entails, one valuable product of extra-class activities will have been realized. If students are encouraged to make decisions regarding the administering of their living in the college community and are required to assume responsibility for those decisions, they will have taken another step toward active participation in adult life. If through living and learning with representatives of other races, faiths, and nationalities, students become less self-centered, less provincial, and less prejudiced, they will have learned what they cannot learn from lectures. And if they participate in and become aware of the workings, the responsibilities, and the obligations of democracy operating on a small scale they will be that much better prepared to participate in a democratic life as it operates on a full scale.

Implementing the Program

It is comparatively easy for an individual or a group to outline what ought to be done by college faculties or students. Much more difficult and of equal or greater importance is getting them to do what has been outlined. In too many, but fortunately not all, institutions an apathy toward current happenings exists among students and faculty members alike. Students are more interested in the success of the baseball or football team than in the success of the Marshall Plan. They are more interested in who will play for the next dance than who will win the next election. Faculty members are concerned only or chiefly with presenting the facts of their subjects rather than in the present and future interests and activities of their students in the campus and in the wider community.

In such cases some sort of program needs to be undertaken to bring

teachers and students to a realization of the gravity of national and world affairs and of their responsibilities in connection with them.

Among the many plans which have been tried by different institutions are the bringing in of outside speakers, a one-or two-day moratorium on classes for the discussion of current happenings, holding of retreats or of some sort of workshop for teachers, the supplying of current literature to teachers, and the giving of contemporary affairs tests to teachers. Probably a combination of several methods will be most effective and any program will almost certainly be productive of results only if it is a long-term undertaking and has the backing of faculty, students, and administration.

The members of the group from whose deliberations originated the ideas presented in this report are firmly convinced of the urgent necessity for colleges and universities to take direct and immediate action designed to secure better adaptation of teaching, curriculum, and co-curriculum activities to contemporary issues in the interest of a student body enlightened about and interested in these issues. They feel that no more important and challenging task than this faces college administrators and teachers at the present time.

College Programs of Less Than Four Years —The Community College

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP N¹

B. Lamar Johnson

*Dean of Instruction, Stephens College
Columbia, Missouri*

"The time has come to make education through the fourteenth grade available in the same way that high school education is now available." President's Commission on Higher Education.

"The junior college is the most rapidly developing educational institution in the United States." Earl McGrath.

"The most important thing that can be done to equalize educational opportunity beyond the twelfth grade is to develop a system of locally controlled, locally and state supported, tuition free junior colleges that can be attended by youth while living at home." Alonzo F. Myers.

FOLLOWING every war which the United States has fought, our nation has experienced a notably rapid expansion of education. Granted the maintenance of peace in the years that lie ahead, the decades following the Second World War will without doubt follow the pattern of history, insofar as the expansion of education is concerned.

During the two decades following the First World War, high schools in the United States quadrupled in number and more than doubled in enrollment. All evidence points to the fact that during the two decades that lie immediately ahead, the junior college will expand even more rapidly than did high schools in the period following the First World War. Recommendations to support this forecast are to be found in the reports of such varied groups as the American Youth Commission, the National Resources Planning Board, the Education Policies Commission, and the President's Commission on Higher Education.

Although in 1940 the colleges of the nation enrolled only 1,500,000 students (16 percent of the age group from eighteen to twenty-one), the President's Commission on Higher Education recommends a minimum college enrollment of 4,600,000 by 1960. "Of this total number, 2,500,000 should be in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades (junior college level)."²

¹ Group N operated under the chairmanship of H. T. Morse, dean of the general college, University of Minneapolis, Minnesota. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

² President's Commission on Higher Education. *Higher Education for American Democracy*. Vol. I, *Establishing the Goals*, p. 89.

"At least 49 percent of our population has the mental ability to complete fourteen years of schooling with a curriculum of general and vocational studies that should lead either to gainful employment or to further study at a more advanced level."³

Such recommendations and predictions as these are staggering in their implications, suggesting as they do that a junior college education will increasingly become the heritage of American youth, much as a high school education is today.

Why an Upward Extension?

Against the background of these and related proposals comes the question, why is more education (through the fourteenth grade for 49 percent of our nation's youth) needed for the young people of the United States?

To this query at least four answers can be given:

1. Technological developments are postponing the date of original employment for youth. Prior to the war with its unprecedented production and employment, youth by the millions were unemployed. During the mid-thirties more than four million youth from the ages of sixteen to twenty-four were both out of school and out of work. In 1940 only slightly more than one-half of our eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds were employed. Our nation—and indeed the world—can ill-afford an idle age group. The upward extension of educational opportunity is clearly indicated.

2. Society and our entire civilization are becoming increasingly complex to the extent that the citizenry of our nation requires an extended education in order to live intelligently. Developments in transportation and communications have, for example, broken down community, state, and even national barriers to the point that worldwide understandings and appreciations are as important today as were statewide understandings fifty or even thirty years ago. Changes and needs of similar importance can readily be identified in the areas of health, citizenship, the arts, and science—including, of course, atomic power and its host of potentialities and problems. The demand for increased understandings, appreciations, and abilities has resulted in transferring the responsibility for education from the home to the school. Current needs are obviously demanding an upward extension of education.

3. There is an increasingly large number of occupations for which post-high school training of less than four years is required. In 1940 more than 53 percent of the employed workers in the nation were in areas for which vocational training of college level would be desirable for all or a major fraction of the workers.⁴ The overwhelming majority of these workers (the

³ *Ibid.*, p. 41.

⁴ National Advisory Committee on Vocational Education of College Grade. *Vocational Education of College Grade*. Bulletin 1946, No. 18. United States Office of Education. Federal Security Agency, p. 14.

ratio is probably as much as five or six to one) ⁵ were in positions requiring less than four years of post-high school training. The training of this large body of workers (semi-professional, technical, for example) is a responsibility which education cannot shirk. An upward extension of education is indicated.

4. If democracy is to survive, our nation requires an educated citizenry. If democracy is to survive it must improve. If democracy is to improve our nation must depend not only upon educated leaders; it must also depend upon educated followers—an educated citizenry. It is this objective in which really culminates all of the other purposes, goals, objectives, and aspirations of our educational system. It is this objective which particularly creates a demand for the upward extension of education.

The Community College—An Answer

If the upward extension of education is, as seems obvious, indicated for a sizeable percent (as has been pointed out, the President's Commission suggests 49 percent should complete grade fourteen) of our nation's youth, the question naturally comes, how best can post-high school education of less than four years duration best be provided for our nation's growth?

One general overall answer can be given to this question: If we wish to extend upward the education of our nation's youth, it will be necessary to provide post-high school education at the community (or at the very least at commuting) level.

The President's Commission on Higher Education uses the term *community college* to designate the institution which will aim to meet the post-high school educational needs of the community. In the remainder of this chapter the term, *community college*, rather than the more usual term, *junior college*, will be used. This usage is being followed, not so much for the purpose of conforming to the term used by the President's Commission as for the purpose of avoiding the unfortunate "college preparatory" function so often connoted by the term "junior college."

In a study of 1941 high school graduates in fifty-seven different communities, Koos found that in communities without junior colleges only 19.7 percent of the high school graduates continued in school after high school graduation. On the other hand, in communities with junior colleges 48.4 percent of the high school graduates continued in school and in communities with tuition free junior colleges the percent increased to 53.5. It will be observed, that these figures approximate the 49 percent suggested by the President's Commission on Higher Education.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 18.

The Community College—How?

Granted the need for community post-high school education of less than four years, how should community colleges be planned, supported, and controlled? To this question there are at least four answers.

1. Regional (ordinarily statewide) planning is essential, in projecting the location and establishment of community colleges. If community colleges are best to serve the needs of our nation, and particularly of our youth, they must usually be planned in terms wider than that of a single community. Such planning will consider post-high school facilities already available in relation to the particular needs of a state or areas within a state.

Regional planning will also keep in mind the population factors which are necessary to the establishment of a community college with an enrollment sufficient to make possible the development of an effective educational program. It is encouraging to observe statewide surveys in such widely spread and diversified states as New York, Wisconsin, Maryland, Illinois, Pennsylvania, and Minnesota.

2. Since the community college will ordinarily be a tax-supported public institution, it should receive state as well as local financial support. The pattern for such support will, of course, vary from state to state. In general, however, the pattern will conform to that already established for the support of public high schools in the respective states, with due regard to the greater cost of higher education.

3. Whenever possible the community college will be tuition free. Since a major objective of the community college is to democratize post-high school education and since studies indicate (those by Koos quoted above, for example) that this is best achieved when no tuition is charged, every effort should be made to eliminate tuition as an economic barrier to post-high school education.

4. Since the community college will ordinarily aim to serve the specific educational needs of a specific community, control of the college should ordinarily rest at the community, rather than at the state level. This generalized statement is, of course, subject to modification in those states in which a plan of state-controlled regional colleges or institutes is carried out.

In this presentation the term *community college* has been used to designate a college planned to meet the needs of a local community and its citizens. It is, of course, important to recognize the local and state educational environment in planning for the education of youth at the community level. In some states population factors may dictate the need for regional colleges serving a broad area; in some communities existing colleges (public or private) may be able to expand or adapt their program to the particular needs of the community—hence no new community college would be necessary.

The Community College—Recommended Practices

Turning now from some of the more generalized characteristics of post-high school education at the community level, we may raise the question, what are some of the specific practices which experience suggests ought to be followed if the individual community college is best to fulfill the purposes for which it was established? The answers to this question, which are given below, are in no sense exhaustive. They are merely suggestive of trends and practices.

1. The community college must develop a close relationship with the high school or high schools of the area it serves. Particularly important in this connection are practices which will aid in bridging the gap between the close of grade twelve and the succeeding years of school. Plans for bridging the gap will vary from state to state and from community to community. In some cases an organizational plan (the six-four-four plan, for example) may be adjudged to be helpful; in others, guidance and curriculum articulation may be worked out by entirely different methods. The particular devices or practices that will best fit the needs of a specific community cannot be identified here. The need for using every possible aid to bridge the gap can and must be emphasized.

2. The community college must build its program on the basis of the needs and resources (educational and occupational, human and material) of the community. Representative of practices which have been found helpful in projecting and maintaining programs on such a basis are the following:

- a. Use community advisory boards (citizens with varied economic, occupational, social, political, and religious backgrounds) as aids to establishing and planning educational programs based upon community needs.

- b. Study intensively, extensively, and continually the abilities, needs, goals, and achievements of students, and former students as well as of youth who might have been, but were not, served by the community college.

- c. Provide work-study experience carefully integrated into the educational experience of the student and into the needs of the community. The work experience may be vocational, social, religious, or civic.

3. The community college must provide an education for students of varying aptitudes, and abilities—not only verbal and academic but also social, artistic, mechanical, and motor. Traditionally post-high school education (as well as high school education) has been planned for youth with verbal skills and with intellectual interests. The community college, if it is to serve its purposes, must recognize that the community—yes, and the state, the nation, and the world—need trained citizens with all varieties of aptitudes and abilities. The work and activity of society are carried out on the basis of a division of labor which does and must recognize all varieties of talents. Our educational system, and particularly the community college, must build upon a recognition of both the needs of the community and the capacities of its youth.

4. The community college must use all varieties of instructional experiences and aids to learning. In a sense, this statement might apply to any college. In a special sense, however, it applies to the community college. Since the usual college ordinarily appeals to students with selected verbal aptitudes, such colleges can perhaps with some validity stress verbal (reading, lecture, etc.) approaches to learning. The community college, the students of which may have less verbal aptitude—and greater talents in other areas—will not dare to rely upon the usual verbal approach to learning. It must use such varied aids to learning as trips, motion pictures, recordings, radio, tape recorders, demonstrations, models, film strips, and slides.

5. The community college must employ a faculty, the interests, training, and experience of which extend beyond the usual academic areas. If occupational training and work experience, for example, have important places in the curriculum of the community college, it is important to have faculty members who have had practical work experience in those fields for which training is offered.

6. The community college must provide for the common general education needs of all students; both for those who will continue their formal education beyond the community college and for those for whom the community college is terminal. Although in establishing and maintaining a program of general education the results of varied national studies of the general education needs of youth (such as those of the American Youth Commission) may prove helpful as a general guide, the most helpful material will undoubtedly develop from studies of the local community and its youth. (See 2, above.)

7. Since the purpose of the community college is to meet the educational needs of the community and its youth, maximum flexibility must be provided so that all parts of the educational program can be adapted to the needs of the community and the students.

a. The length of courses and curriculums must be adapted to the needs of the group served. Programs may range from institutes only a few days in length to curriculums up to two or even more years in length—as needed by the individual student.

b. Provision must be made for both full-time and part-time students—again on the basis of the need of the individual student.

8. If it is adequately to meet the needs of the community the college will need to provide education for adults as well as for the youth of the community. Those same factors which make a post-high school education for youth necessary (complexity of our civilization, needed occupational training, the demands of democratic citizenship) also create a need for adult education. The community college, built as it is upon the needs of the community and its citizens, is the obvious unit of the educational system to provide a program of adult education.

9. The community college must provide guidance for its students—guidance that is educational, vocational, and personal; guidance that includes placement and follow-up. Such a concept of guidance should, of course, be accepted by every college. This concept is, however, particularly important for the community college with the varied talents and goals of its students. As an aid to the development of an effective program of this type the entire faculty should be encouraged to develop the counselling viewpoint and to participate in the program to the greatest extent possible—in terms of their load and their ability.

10. The community college must constantly engage in a program of appraisal and reappraisal of its total program and of each segment of its program. Only in this way can the staff and the constituency of the college judge the effectiveness of its program and with validity project improvements.

Conclusion

Establishing a community college of the type recommended "is indeed a large order. If, however, the needs of the adult population as well as those of school age youth are to be adequately served, if the broad goals for higher education in America proposed by the President's Commission are to be approached even in part, if there is to be a real democratization of higher education, the development of the community college must enlist a large share of the time, thought, and effort of all persons interested in the welfare of American Youth."⁶ Only the basis of such an enlistment of resources can a program of community college education of the type here envisaged be realized.

⁶ From mimeographed statement by H. T. Morse, Third Annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, March 22 to 25, 1948.

Adult and Off-Campus Programs

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP O¹

J. O. Keller

*Assistant to the President, Pennsylvania State College
State College, Pennsylvania*

THE great flash coming from the atomic bomb at Hiroshima has acted as the source of electric energy in compelling the stage hands in the world theatre of education to focus presently their spotlights upon adult education.

The report of the President's Commission on Higher Education is concerned with the ignorance, the prejudice, the frustrations, and the fears which are disturbing our people today. The element of time is present to a great extent. Things must be accomplished "today," "in the days immediately ahead," and in the Commission's report ten years is a long time. Let us look at one of the earlier statements:

A Time of Crisis

"It is essential today that education come decisively to grips with the worldwide crisis of mankind. This is no careless or uncritical use of words. No thinking person doubts that we are living in a decisive moment of human history.

"Atomic scientists are doing their utmost to make us realize how easily and quickly a world catastrophe may come. They know the fearful power for destruction possessed by the weapons their knowledge and skill have fashioned. They know that the scientific principles on which these weapons are based are no secret to the scientists of other nations, and that America's monopoly of the engineering processes involved in the manufacture of atom bombs is not likely to last many years. And to the horror of atomic weapons, biological and chemical instruments of destruction are now being added.

"But disaster is not inevitable. The release of atomic energy that has brought man within sight of world devastation has just as truly brought him the promise of a brighter future. The potentialities of atomic power are as great for human betterment as for human annihilation. Man can choose which he will have.

"The possibility of this choice is the supreme fact of our day, and it will necessarily influence the ordering of educational priorities. We have a big job of reeducation to do. Nothing less than a complete reorientation of our thinking will suffice if mankind is to survive and move on to higher levels.

¹ Group O operated under the chairmanship of J. D. Williams, chancellor, University of Mississippi, University, Mississippi. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

"In a real sense the future of our civilization depends on the direction education takes, not just in the distant future, but in the days immediately ahead."²

Definition of Adult Education

Adult Education has not been precisely defined. Recently Commissioner J. W. Studebaker gave a splendid definition in a brief article entitled "What Is Adult Education Anyway?" He said, "Adult education * * * involves all the opportunities to learn, discover, create, invent, and participate in the rich on-going civilization which is our heritage as Americans."³

A special Committee of the National University Extension Association in a preliminary report⁴ on Adult Education in the Modern University offered three basic concepts that appear to be fundamental to an essential idea of adult education. These three concepts can be stated briefly as follows:

1. Adult education is for mature, rather than immature, people.
2. Adult education is based upon real life needs.
3. Adult education should be organized rather than random in character.

Members of conference Group O defined Adult Education in a restricted sense as education which takes place after completion by the individual of his formal schooling. They further felt that the purpose of adult education is to extend opportunities, both formal and informal in character, for adults.

The Responsibility of Higher Education for Adult Education

With such concepts in mind it became clear to the group that every college and university has some responsibility for adult education beyond the campus, that some of the off-campus and extension programs are adult education, and that much of the off-campus and extension programs are not adult education. In general, however, the group did not express themselves in full accord with the findings of the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, although individual members of the group did make statements in full accord with portions of the report that touched strongly upon the importance of adult education as a function of institutions of higher education.

For instance several members called specific attention to the following statements in the Report of the President's Commission:⁵

"An expanded program of adult education must be added to the task of the colleges. This is a vital and immediate need, because the crucial decisions

² "Establishing the Goals." *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, December 1947, p. 6-7.

³ *Adult Education Bulletin*, Vol. XII, No. 4, (April 1948), p. 89.

⁴ Fisher, Charles A., Chairman; Broady, Knute; Houle, Cyril O., "Adult Education in the Modern University"—A Preliminary Report by a Special Committee of the National University Extension Association.

⁵ "Establishing the Goals." *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, December 1947, p. 96-97.

of our time may have to be made in the near future. Education for action that is to be taken, for attitudes that are to be effective, in the next few years must be mainly adult education.

"... But the colleges and universities are the best equipped of all the agencies, from the standpoint of resources, to undertake the major part of the job. Education on a near adult level is their business, and they have, in some measure at least, the necessary teachers and facilities.

"... The colleges and universities should elevate adult education to a position of equal importance with any other of their functions. The extension department should be charged with the task of channeling the resources of every teaching unit of the institution into the adult program.

"To this degree every college and university should become a 'community college.' Then extension teaching would be accounted a part of the regular teaching load and would receive its due share of faculty energy and interest.

"It (higher education) must broaden that concept. It must cease to be campus-bound. It must take the university to the people wherever they are to be found and by every available and effective means for the communication of ideas and the stimulation of intellectual curiosity. It must not hold itself above using all the arts of persuasion to attract consumers for the service it offers."

The attitude of conference Group O might well bear out the statement made elsewhere in the Report of the President's Commission that the present status of university extension services makes it painfully clear that the colleges and universities do not recognize adult education as their potentially greatest service to democratic society. It is pushed aside as something quite extraneous to the real business of the university. It was also felt that recent interest in and attention upon adult education as demonstrated by the increase in articles touching on the subject in the press, magazines, and technical journals will tend to correct these attitudes.

Coordination of Effort in Adult Education Programs

At the present time there appears to be confusion in the minds of many educators as to how programs in adult education can be coordinated so as to prevent wasteful duplication of effort and harmful competition among the various agencies carrying on adult education programs. Particularly is this so in the case of institutions of higher learning. County and local councils for adult education have not had the necessary continuity to give educators confidence in them up to the present time, and on the state level such councils have been sporadic in their success. The booklet that describes the county-wide experiment in Greenville County, South Carolina, was referred to upon

numerous occasions.⁶ It was felt that usually too many agencies were represented in state councils to bring about unity of thought and action. In so far as higher education was concerned, the best results have been obtained where a statewide council had been made up of representatives from each of the institutions of higher learning in the state, both public and private, and in addition representation from the public schools usually by state department of education officials. The Michigan experimental program was cited as an excellent example containing such an organization.

The purpose of a statewide council is to assist in the determination of needs for adult education and to work with each institution of higher learning to determine the nature and extent of its own responsibilities in the field of adult education consistent with the institution's available resources. Local and county councils should contain representation from all agencies interested in adult education as well as the public schools and institutions of higher learning concerned with these smaller communities and areas.

Standards of Instruction

Conference Group O was of one mind in its belief in the necessity for high standards of instruction in adult education. One of the group members gave a discouraging report on poor quality of both administration and instruction in local university extension programs. Low standards cannot be tolerated if off-campus and adult education programs are going to be effective. The quality of the instruction in adult education programs must be at least as high as that maintained on the campus in terms of the purposes to be accomplished and the nature of the students involved. Many of these programs need not carry college credit, but when college credit is given, the work should be at least equal, in quality and amount, to equivalent work offered on the campus. In order to insure high quality work the faculty must be selected with utmost care and should be subject to approval by both resident subject-matter and extension administrators. The best programs in adult education are those with a high degree of helpful supervision.

Supervising the Program

In the smaller extension programs standards of instruction can be controlled by means of a faculty committee, or by using as teachers only members of the regular faculty, but in the larger programs, standards of instruction must be controlled by having full-time supervisors visit classes regularly and report on written forms to the resident department heads. Where part-time teachers are utilized, this supervision must be expanded to include informal programs of teacher training. One large college furnishes each such teacher

⁶ Brunner, Edmund de S. *Community Organization and Adult Education—A Five-Year Experiment*. (The University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1942.)

with a small pamphlet containing excellent material on how to teach effectively, and the supervisors hold informal discussion meetings after regular class hours with part-time teachers using questions based upon material contained in the pamphlets. The supervisors also are furnished a pamphlet on how to improve their supervision and special teaching aids are furnished teachers from time to time by the supervisors.

Faculty Status of Teachers in Adult Education

Outside of the difference in the extent and methods of supervision employed in the off-campus programs, full-time adult education faculty should enjoy the same status as teachers on the university campus. They should be subject to the same salary scales, the same work loads with consideration for travel time and energy expended, the same privileges with regard to retirement and hospitalization plans, in fact the same faculty status that prevails on the campus of the institution conducting the program.

The Extent and Variety of Present-Day Class Programs

How are adult education programs now carried on by institutions of higher learning? Courses in adult education have been successfully offered in almost limitless numbers and variety to meet educational needs. Techniques employed are limited only by the imagination and technical advance of man. The preliminary report of the special National University Extension Association committee on adult education previously referred to is quite helpful in showing the variety of programs and methods employed. Extension classes are used to teach technical courses, business programs, and programs aiming at liberal education.

Technical Courses and Business Programs

While these classes may deal with a single subject the trend is toward sequences. One extension program, statewide in scope, has at present fifteen technical institutes offering part-time evening instruction in technical and business curriculums that take from three to five years of evening work. These institutes usually operate two nights each week for approximately three hours each evening. This same program also contains full-time day institutes where the same program given in the evening can be completed in from one to one and a half years.

The University of Michigan writes:

"In all of our centers we have been expanding our program in cooperation with national and local business groups such as the Chartered Life Underwriters, the Chartered Public and Casualty Underwriters, the Credits and Collections Association, National Office Management Association, and the Real Estate Association. In most cases we are planning series of courses which will

eventually lead to certificates offered by the Extension Service. In some of this work we have been assisted by the State Board of Control for Vocational Education. This has been mutually advantageous as it has enabled us to offer courses to comparatively small groups of students and it has made it possible for the State Board program to reach a clientele that would not usually be included."⁷

Programs in Liberal Education

The University of Chicago reports:

"Our basic program of liberal education for adults is a four-year experimental program inaugurated in 1946 at the Downtown Center and designed to place liberal education within the reach of busy adults who want it. The program emphasizes development of the liberal arts by informal practice in reading, speaking, listening, writing, and thinking about the fundamental ideas of Western civilization. This course meets two evenings a week, three hours per evening. Under certain circumstances students may qualify by examination for the award of the degree of bachelor of arts, but this program is primarily a noncredit activity."⁸

"Many examples could be given of other noncredit programs, as distinguished from individual subjects, that have been developed for adults having similar professional or technical needs. Series of courses in chemistry, engineering, management, labor education, and postgraduate work in medicine are representative.

Variety of Needs Met

"It is apparent from a review of the individual noncredit courses offered that they are intended to meet a great variety of needs, such as vocational, appreciation, leisure time, and socio-civic. Here are a few titles: air-conditioning, cotton classing, graphic arts, jewelry making, lecture-discussions on current social problems, music appreciation, music, safety, tool design, and recent United States foreign policy.

"In a society in which adult needs are both tremendously diverse at a given time and also changing at a rapid rate there is no possibility of setting bounds to the courses to be offered. One can only say that a need is noted or it is aroused and that such need is met in the way which at the time seems most feasible and effective.

"Everyone who works with adults realizes that catch-words like air-conditioning or electronics lead many seekers after education into unprofitable

⁷ Fisher, Charles A., Chairman; Broady, Knute; Houle, Cyril O., "Adult Education in the Modern University"—A preliminary report by a special committee of the National University Extension Association.

⁸ *Ibid.*

bypaths. Guidance, therefore, has a place of great importance in a program of adult class instruction.

Quoting from Syracuse University:

"Our weakness—and I think it is a general weakness—in extension education lies in the fact that most people enrolling do so without counselling. They think, for example, that the course sounds attractive and that it might help them, and since the G. I. Bill pays the way, what have they to lose. This term, we are taking a very determined stand in insisting that they go through counselling, and I am hopeful we can steer them into the courses they really need rather than the courses they think sound attractive."⁹

The Correspondence Instruction Method

Other than class methods are used in adult education such as correspondence instruction both to individuals and to groups under a directed study plan or a supervised study plan. These directed study programs have a high percent of completions to their credit and are going to be used more and more in the future to enrich curriculum offerings in situations where local facilities are meager.

The Use of Informal Instruction Techniques and Teaching Aids

The more informal techniques are also being used by those colleges and universities that have had long experience with extension programs. These include the panel discussion, the demonstration, the conference technique, the clinic, the workshop, the forum, the short course, the institute, the home reading course, the lecture, and similar methods that lack the formal disciplines of the class and correspondence method. To supplement these techniques have been added services such as teaching aids including the package library, radio, television, other audio-visual aids like museum material, sound and silent films, film strips, recordings, traveling art exhibits, and portable laboratory kits. At least one university had mobile laboratory equipment in the form of trucks and trailers during the recent war training programs and is in a position to continue this on a larger scale if the need arises again.

Junior College and Other Agency Participation

Adult education programs on the college level are not confined to the regular four-year institutions. The Junior College is making a substantial contribution. A recent article in the *Junior College Journal*¹⁰ justifies this statement. An inquiry blank was sent to all 648 junior colleges listed in the *Junior College Directory*, 1947 and replies were received from 337 junior

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ Mortorana, S. V., "Status of Adult Education in Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, Vol. XVIII, No. 6 (February 1948), p. 322-31.

colleges, 144 of which were offering programs of adult education. Perhaps it is out of place here, but mention should be made of the contribution in adult education at the college level that is being made by the United States Armed Forces Institute. Not only is the correspondence instruction work a vast undertaking in this field, but the program in class work carried on by the cooperating services is little known by educators or the public. The Army itself has a total current enrollment of 220,000 students in class work alone!

The Promotion of Adult Education by Higher Education

Each college and university must adjust its promotional activities to meet individual circumstances. A small college will use methods that differ materially from a larger institution with an area of influence that might be state wide in scope, and a variety of methods have been successfully used to acquaint the public with adult education offerings. These include the use of placards, bulletins, and monthly publications, as well as field representatives and district offices. Local and state advisory committees are extremely helpful in this connection, as are community and sectional adult education councils to help coordinate the programs of various agencies. Working with organizations such as labor unions, industries, service clubs, women's groups, veterans organizations (to mention but a few) has proved to be most helpful in this connection.

One director of extension in conference Group O had this to say: "Basically we do not promote extension activities but rather try to serve communities when requests come to us from a county superintendent or school system, or a group of 20 or more teachers. . . . We do not have a strict promotional program but when I receive a request for extension classes I try to follow through in a conference with the source of the request and in so far as possible see that an instructor is assigned to that particular community to teach the particular course which is desired. Since we are a teachers college we are only offering in extension at the present time courses which are directly related to teacher education."

Another director in the group speaking of his college made this statement: "The extension program is promoted through the newspapers, bulletins, letters, motion pictures, personal visitation, speeches, work shops, committees, and conferences."

Another member of the group suggests indirect promotion when he said: "I'd like to put in a word for the GED test as an accreditation instrument for adults, whether or not they are veterans. I'd like to see the high schools and the state departments encourage adults to take the test by awarding them high school diplomas or equivalency certificates. I am convinced that this will induce many adults to begin studying again."

Financing Adult Education at the College Level

All such programs cost money and, insofar as possible, fees are charged individual participants. There are other methods successfully used to finance adult education programs, however. Federal, state, and municipal funds are used by public institutions through various grants; in other cases public moneys have been used under contractual arrangements such as was the case in the Engineering, Science, and Management War Training Program and more recently with the G. I. Bill of Rights. In the case of both public and private institutions endowment money has been used, and programs have been financed through cooperative arrangement with the various types of agencies previously mentioned, such as industrial organizations and labor unions.

There are many types of informal programs in which it is difficult to charge individual fees. Unless some additional subsidy is forthcoming from federal, state, or local tax sources, many socially significant programs must give way to less effective programs that can be operated on a self-supporting basis. In this connection attention is called to Senate Bill 2156 introduced jointly by Senator H. Alexander Smith of New Jersey and Senator Edward Martin of Pennsylvania in the 80th Congress Second Session. It authorizes the appropriation of funds to land grant colleges and state universities in order to assist the states and territories in the further development of their programs of general university extension education of college grade. There is nothing in the bill that would prevent a private institution from receiving some of these funds for its general university extension program if it would enter into a contractual relationship with one of the public institutions that is eligible to receive these funds by direct grant.

Inasmuch as the preservation of our free and democratic society depends largely upon an informed and intelligent citizenry, capable of making wise decisions, the cost of increased adult education programs is small indeed in comparison with the benefits to be derived therefrom for our people and nation. As Dean Francis H. Horn of Johns Hopkins, a member of the conference group, has so well stated it: "Adult education in the broad sense in which the term has been employed in this paper, is, I believe, the new frontier of American education. If in pushing back the boundaries of frustration and ignorance and prejudice and fear which are pressing in on our people today, we maintain the standards of objectivity and thoroughness and devotion to the truth that have characterized higher education in this country, we may well face the future with confidence in the ultimate triumph of our democratic ideal."¹¹

¹¹ Horn, Francis H., "Problems of Extension Education," *College and University—The Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, Vol. 23, No. 3 (April 1948), p. 448.

PART IV. FACULTY

Evaluation and Improvement of Teaching in Service

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP P¹

P. C. Weaver

*Assistant Director, Summer Session, Pennsylvania State College
State College, Pennsylvania*

OF THE many problems confronting higher education in recent years, two have been under constant discussion in the literature, on the radio, and in educational meetings. First, changes that are considered desirable in the functions and objectives of higher education; and second, changes that are needed in the organization and administration of the higher institutions to expedite the achievement of the desired objectives both in scope and nature.

To meet some of the major shortcomings with which they are charged, the institutions of higher learning need to develop students with a fuller understanding of American democracy, and a more proficient curiosity about, interest in, and ability to deal with vital challenges confronting citizens today. Courses need to be rebuilt; objectives redefined; standards raised; and classroom practices studied in the light of recent developments in the psychology of learning and the new educational goals to be sought.

Attention is called to the foregoing to emphasize the point that upon the teacher now in service in the colleges and universities rests the primary responsibility for the realization of the revised goals. The importance of the achievement of these desired changes constitutes an urgent challenge to both college instructors and administrators.

Improvement of Instruction

In its discussion this group gave chief consideration to the factors affecting classroom teaching processes. Emphasis was not upon what is taught, but how the teaching is done. Reference is not made, therefore, to advisory, guidance, and extra-class programs, or library facilities, which are also recognized as having an important relationship to successful teaching.

The following represent two premises which the group believe are of primary and fundamental importance in bringing about improvement of instruction.

¹ Group P operated under the chairmanship of M. T. Harrington, dean, School of Arts and Sciences, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Station, Texas. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

First, teachers and administrators need to have clearly conceived objectives which they are both endeavoring to achieve. They should have a mutual understanding of the knowledge, qualities, and characteristics they desire the students to possess upon graduation.

Second, teachers and administrators should be acquainted with the criteria that are considered useful in identifying good teaching.

General Factors Contributing to Teaching Competency

The 50 to 100 percent increase in enrollment in higher institutions during the current period has caused attention to be focused especially upon administrative problems, particularly with reference to salaries and security of staff members. Meanwhile, many conditions have developed with regard to the instructional program that are now urgently in need of improvement. Studies should be made by individual institutions, therefore, to identify the factors that are now affecting unfavorably the quality of instruction.

"Teaching" is the most important work of the teacher. Greater rewards are being placed upon research, however, largely because the results are probably more tangible than the outcomes of good teaching. A continued effort needs to be put forth to have a greater value placed upon good teaching—a value that is equivalent in prestige and in reward to that assigned to research. College authorities must support their verbal statements that good teaching is important by tangible evidence to that effect in the form of promotions in rank and in salary.

The administration, through the policies followed with respect to promotions in rank and in salary, possesses one of the strongest and most direct powers and incentives for bringing about improvement. A sound salary gives staff members a feeling of justice and confidence. Policies that provide professional advancement and salary increases solely on the basis of years of service, without consideration of quality of service rendered, may impede improvement. They should be so formulated and administered, that demonstrable evidence of successful achievements and increased competency are as significant factors in awarding promotions as are years of service.

The significance of teacher welfare measures such as retirement compensation, and tenure in relation to professional efficiency should be clearly understood by administrators. Moreover, benefactors of tenure and retirement measures have a professional obligation to continue to strive on their own initiative to increase their competence in all matters related to their professional responsibilities.

Frequently efforts to improve the instructional program are focused exclusively on the weak teacher. Such efforts are beneficial only if followed by constructive action. Assistance to the inferior teacher represents, however, only one aspect of a desirable inservice program of improvement. The major

objective of every plan should be to find ways by which the learning of all students in the institution may be increased—not just the accomplishments of those who come under the poor teachers. Situations are just as likely to be discovered, upon investigation, where the work of the average or superior teacher is made less effective by some impeding factor, or where it can be made more effective with appropriate assistance.

By tradition, the college instructor has been regarded as possessing full competency for his duties upon appointment. The feeling has also prevailed that the college instructor has the right to teach what he wishes in the way he wishes. These and other traditional concepts have affected adversely the use of organized inservice plans to give needed assistance to many instructors whose achievements are below standard. A full realization of the serious effect of poor teaching upon the lives of students in the colleges today should constitute a strong force toward bringing about a reappraisal of traditional policies, and a desire to find effective new ways of increasing teaching competency.

Much progress has been made in recent years in the development of personnel practices in relation to students in the colleges and universities. Industry discovered a number of years ago the importance and benefits derived from sound personnel policies. The opinion was expressed by the group that the quality of service rendered by staff members, and their morale, could be markedly improved, if the colleges would follow the practices of industry and give greater consideration to the personal, social, and environmental factors that affect the production standards of the faculty. Such programs should be so administered, however, that the personal independence and professional freedom of the individual are strengthened, not weakened.

When initiating improvement programs it is considered good practice to start with a single problem of immediate interest to a large number of staff members. Sometimes an indirect approach may be more feasible when conditions are unfavorable to a direct approach. Experiences reported favored having improvement projects carried out by special groups rather than by standing administrative committees. More frequent use of personal and written statements of commendation was considered desirable.

Some Specific Ways Used for Improving Instruction

It is recognized that the plans for improvement of learning in any given institution need to arise out of a study of conditions within the institution itself. The size of institution, work offered, form of organization and administration, and qualifications of staff are factors that may affect the procedure followed.

Among the methods now in use for motivating and improving instruction

are: sabbatical and special leaves; attendance at professional meetings, workshops, and conferences; provision for further study during academic year and summer sessions; encouragement of intra- and inter-departmental, and inter-institutional visitation; participation in seminars, study, and research groups; faculty meetings; frequent discussions of school objectives; rotation of course, administrative and advisory assignments; recognition and time allowance for extra-instructional duties; promotion and tenure policies that are based in part on superior teaching; and faculty bulletins containing educational news articles and constructive professional suggestions.

Other ways of improvement used include ratings by students, alumni, colleagues, and visiting committees; the presentation of results of studies of vital departmental or school problems before faculty; the demonstration and/or report on effective teaching methods used by a staff member whose successful teaching ability is generally recognized; discussions and demonstrations on functions of guidance, psychological, reading, health, and speech clinics or divisions; creation of central bureaus to give assistance on instructional matters such as testing and use of audio-visual aids; use of external examinations (graduate record, cooperative test service bureau) and examiners; and use of visiting consultants to lead discussions on important selected topics.

Visits by staff members in industries and places where graduates are employed; an "open door" at the dean's office to serve as an incentive for faculty members to enter voluntarily for informal discussions; and establishment of special professorships at salaries above the normal maximum professorial payments have been found beneficial.

Opinions differed on the extent to which research contributes to the improvement of teaching. Research that extends the boundaries of scholarship and understanding of the faculty members in relation to instructional responsibilities is considered helpful; research that has as its major purpose the development of new facts and preparation of scientific workers may contribute little, under some circumstances, to teaching competency.

Types of Organized and Informal Improvement Plans

Faculty committees or councils on instruction, made up of representatives of the instructional staff, serve as the unit in numerous institutions for sponsoring improvement programs.

Two types of research councils are in use. In each case there is a central council or committee, with the service performed on either a centralized or decentralized basis. Under the centralized arrangement a staff of specialists conducts needed investigations on vital general institutional problems, and reports the results and recommendations to members of the staff.

In the decentralized plan, the problems studied are usually those with which the individual investigator is personally and directly concerned. The central committee provides guidance and such assistance as may be needed by individuals or groups for organizing studies, assembling data, scoring tests, and analyzing results.

Frequently the complaint is made that members of the instructional staff, particularly the younger ones, have no opportunity to express their ideas before top-ranking administrative officers. An informal forum serves this purpose in one institution with an instructor as chairman, and selected administrators as auditors in the group. A free and frank discussion of any worthwhile instructional problem is encouraged. Minutes are not kept, votes are not taken.

Central administrative divisions through which recording, transcribing, auditing, photographic, projection equipment, and other teaching aids are available can make numerous worthwhile contributions to the improvement of instruction. Speech, language, teacher education, drama, music, and science departments profit especially by such services.

Departmental luncheon meetings, held at regular intervals, at which staff members discuss instructional problems and recent developments in the subjectmatter field provide stimulating and beneficial results.

Improvement a Mutual Responsibility of the Administrative and Instructional Staff

To help the student achieve maximal learning of important and socially useful things, to be able to do critical thinking, to formulate a sound philosophy of life, and to develop such other outcomes as are considered desirable results of a college education—these are the responsibilities of *all* individuals on a college staff, whether performing administrative or instructional duties.

Because of their mutual objectives, presidents, deans, heads of departments, and members of the instructional staff are obligated, as individuals and as groups, to initiate whatever measures will increase the learning of students. The duty of seeing that improvement does take place rests, however, upon the administrative officers when differences in standards are allowed to continue because of complacency or inferior service. Therefore, the attitude and activity of the administration is a vital factor.

The professional growth and accomplishment of a faculty is seldom, if ever, above the level of the effectiveness of the administration. The personal development of the individual teacher is encouraged or impeded by the attitudes and action of his associates, particularly his department or division head. In other words, the importance of effective administrative leadership cannot be overemphasized in any consideration of the development of both the individual teacher and the instructional staff as a whole.

Encouraging reports were made with regard to the extent to which staff members are voluntarily endeavoring to improve their services through participation in special conferences and workshops. Higher institutions and professional groups should be encouraged to continue to conduct well-planned work conferences and institutes on instructional problems to which members of the teaching staff are especially invited. Present experience indicates that attendance at such meetings is doing much to motivate and enrich the qualifications of those who attend.

Evaluation

Purposes for and Methods of Making Evaluations

In the judgment of the group, objective measures of an acceptable nature are not now available for evaluating the services of faculty members. Nevertheless, under the present system of institutional administration, evaluations of teaching efficiency need to be made constantly for such purposes as determining the extent to which each teacher achieves the objectives of his course; the extent to which he contributes to the institutional objectives; to ascertain how well the institution is doing its job; to enable the institution and teacher to improve instruction; and to provide a basis for tenure, promotion, salary, and reassignment purposes.

Group opinion was to the effect that qualitative judgments of the competency of staff members, made by qualified individuals, and arrived at logically and on the basis of sound reasoning, are of value. Judgments thus formulated should be supplemented, however, by whatever evidences of effectiveness can be collected from such sources as the following: ratings by students, alumni, and colleagues; standards of student achievement on tests particularly those prepared by outside sources; success of students in subsequent courses; use of library and other instructional resources; and student opinion properly assembled and evaluated.

Student rating scales seem to be rather widely used for purposes of motivation and improvement of teaching. This suggests a fairly general acceptance of the fact that such scales have a limited validity in evaluating teaching. However, the very restricted use of such scales by college administrators in determining promotions and salary raises indicates that members of the teaching profession are not yet ready to acknowledge the validity of any student measure of teaching effectiveness as applied to individual staff members.

Items To Help Identify Good Teachers

The following are suggested as criteria that may serve as guides in judging the general effectiveness of staff members. The list is not complete, but

includes some of the qualities considered most important. Some teachers will be found to possess strong characteristics in one area, others in another. It is believed that the best results will accrue when administrators and teachers formulate cooperatively their criteria of good teaching in terms of the objectives of their own individual institution and instructional program.

Two important factors in effective teaching are: first, the instructor's understanding of what he and his course should be doing for the students, and his ability to lead his students to understand what they have the opportunity to accomplish by means of his course and his teaching; and second, the instructor's knowledge and skill in leading his students into effective study and learning toward these accomplishments.

Qualities believed to be helpful in identifying good teachers are:

1. *Command of subjectmatter*—Does a teacher know his subject? Is his scholarship sound? Does he view his subject in proper perspective as a whole, and as a part of broader areas of knowledge? Is he actually growing in his subject and in general mental power?

2. *Helpfulness*—Is he willing and cooperative in student, classroom, and departmental matters? Is he ready to shoulder his share of guidance, committee, and other supplementary responsibilities that are a part of the instructional program?

3. *Deep interest in his job*—Does he regard teaching in itself as a worthwhile job? Are his real interests in teaching or elsewhere? Does he have the professional spirit?

4. *Thoroughness*—Does he expect systematic, sound, and thorough work on the part of the students? Does he require adequate pre-class preparation and supplementary readings? Are his expectations with respect to quality and quantity of work fair and of a high standard, as revealed in class discussions, written or laboratory exercises, and examinations?

5. *Interest provoking ability*—Does he stimulate creative thinking? Does he illuminate his subject through concrete illustrations, pertinent information, and applications to live situations? Does he engage his class in enthusiastic, well-directed, discussions?

6. *Ability to analyze, organize, and explain*—Is he following a comprehensive and well-organized course plan, or is it muddled and unsystematic? Does he plan each day's work carefully? Is he able to present a clear exposition of his subject? Is he able to diagnose the difficulties of the individual student, and suggest effective ways of improvement?

7. *Use of effective teaching devices*—Does he make effective use of such teaching aids as charts, maps, blackboard; recording, transcribing, and auditing equipment; motion picture films and slides? Does he illustrate his presentations adequately with practical demonstrations? Are the laboratory exercises required of an educational value? Is he willing to give time to students for personal conferences?

8. *Effective personality*—Does he have a pleasing, positive, dynamic personality? Does he have a healthy outlook on life? Is he wide awake and alert? Does he show originality? Does he reflect a democratic spirit that makes it easy for students to approach him? Does he have negative qualities

which interfere with his success? Does he command the respect and admiration of students and colleagues? Does he have a sense of humor?

The criteria listed hereafter are considered as some of the important guides in judging the quality of the teaching processes used:

1. Do the students recognize and accept suitable objectives for the course?
2. Do students master to a reasonable degree the essential subject content of the course?
3. Do the students in the course work toward solution of issues and problems?
4. Do the pupils gain in ability to think and to meet adequately new situations?
5. Are the students learning effectively to express their thinking?
6. Do the class experiences help the student to better understand himself?
7. Do the class and course experiences arouse a will to learn on the part of students?
8. Do the students realize a better understanding of human relations—that is, personal, community, national and world?
9. Do the students gain in control of the skills and tools of learning?
10. Are the students learning how to gather factual materials, to discover principles and understandings, and to appreciate values?
11. Does the course help students to establish desirable attitudes and an acceptable philosophy of living?
12. Are learnings in the course being translated into action by students?

Research and Further Study Needed

The opinion was expressed by the group that extensive further studies should be made on the improvement and evaluation of instruction in higher institutions. Research studies are needed on such matters as the developing and validating of criteria of teaching efficiency, evidence gathering procedures, and on ways of measuring human abilities in relation to teaching.

Faculty Salaries, Retirement, and Welfare Provisions

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP Q¹

E. T. McSwain

*Director of Summer Session and Professor of Education
Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois*

HIGH scholastic standards and correlative conditions for creative teaching and research in institutions of higher learning are indispensable in a society where the people desire the values that are derived from a government based on the consent of the governed. The character and mutuality of social goals of a democratic people have their origin and productive quality in the psychological behavior of individual citizens. The more complex the society, the more universal the advance in applied science, the greater is the need for colleges and universities to extend the frontiers of knowledge and to contribute effectively to the mental and moral advancement of youth and adults.

If pace with developments in industry, business, and government is to be maintained, the purposes and facilitating practices in institutions of higher learning must serve more adequately two important social goals. First, scholarly leadership and appropriate experiences must be provided to insure competent preparation of teachers and research specialists. Second, each institution should serve effectively as a social laboratory where students are motivated to discover, to appraise, and to apply the values and disciplines so essential in defending the advance in American democracy.

The President's Commission on Higher Education stated clearly the view that the men and women who teach and guide students, conduct research, offer special services, and administer the system, largely determine the character and quality of the institution and its social contribution to American democracy. Colleges and universities can meet effectively the demands of the contemporary society only in the degree that they are successful in maintaining and in securing competent teachers, research specialists, and administrators.

¹ Group Q operated under the chairmanship of George A. Selke, chancellor, University of Montana, Helena, Montana. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

Adequate Salaries

Adequate salaries are not ends to be desired solely for members of the faculty. They constitute the means by which an institution may be able to secure and retain men and women who possess high personal and professional qualifications. In addition, each institution should recognize the scholarly services of faculty members by offering and maintaining salaries commensurate with the services performed. Teachers, who are employed to guide the intellectual development of students and/or to add to the findings of research, are justified in desiring financial recognition comparable with salaries earned by persons in other professions, in business and industry, or in governmental positions that require a correspondingly high quality of preparation, ability, character, and service.

A college person who desires to assume and perform his citizenship duties to the community and the nation should not be handicapped by low economic earnings. Adequate salaries are required, therefore, to secure scholarly, creative teachers for American youth. Institutions of higher learning will enable the faculty to keep pace with the demands of national and world affairs in the degree that an adequate salary program is provided.

The economic return for teaching in a college or university always has been low and in recent years in many institutions has become less favorable. Where salary increases have failed to keep pace with the inflationary trend of the dollar, the college person's salary has been decreased while in many situations the demand for more services has been increased. The problem of salary must be correlated with the decrease in the purchasing power of the dollar, which has been proven in recent studies made by research bureaus, to be approximately sixty cents. It is imperative that colleges and universities restore the purchasing power of the faculty to 1939 level before interpreting any recent increments in salary to be a raise. Any increment that fails to meet this gain can be called only a temporary adjustment or partial restoration.

Until teachers salaries are made comparable in purchasing power to salaries offered in industry, business, and government for jobs requiring similar preparation, ability, and service, colleges and universities will experience difficulty in keeping competent teachers and research specialists and will find it most difficult to employ properly qualified young men and women. They will also have the problem of recruiting able young men and women to prepare for positions of teaching or research.

The salary group at the meeting of the National Conference on Higher Education recommended: (1) that the initial salary should be high enough to attract the ablest of American youth to the teaching profession, (2) that the salary for an instructor for nine months should not be less than \$3,000,

(3) that the minimum academic requirement for an instructor be a master's degree, and (4) that a specific initial salary for the different academic ranks could not be given as applicable to all institutions because of certain differences among the institutions and the economic conditions of the states.

Faculty Salary Schedule

A salary schedule which does not, because of rigidity, hamper the educational progress of a college or university is generally conceded to be educationally sound and of significant value to the institution. A salary schedule based on sound educational principles, that has been formulated and is operated through cooperative relations between the administrative officers and the faculty, serves the institution: (1) in improving faculty morale; (2) in maintaining competent faculty members; (3) in recognizing productive, efficient services; (4) in recruiting young men and women with outstanding ability. The conference group gave strong endorsement to the policy elements recommended by the President's Committee on Higher Education.²

The conference salary group supported the view that these additional principles should be used in formulating and administering a faculty schedule: (1) the maximum and minimum salaries for each rank should be real rather than verbal desires; (2) automatic increments are generally undesirable; (3) the "cost-of-living bonus" plan to improve salaries is less desirable than a regular salary increase; (4) promotion in rank should be determined by merit, based on teaching, research and special academic services; (5) summer salaries should be set at the same salary rate as the salary policy for the academic year; (6) the salary schedule and adopted budget of the institution should be available for faculty information and study; (7) equal recognition in determining salary and increments should be accorded for competent services in teaching, research, or institutional administration.

The minimum professional requirements for the academic ranks in colleges and universities, recommended by the conference salary group, are: (1) *Instructor*—a master's degree in the field of specialization, (2) *Assistant Professor*—a master's degree, an additional year of professional preparation and demonstrated teaching or research ability, (3) *Associate Professor*—a doctor's degree earned in a field of specialization, and demonstrated teaching and research ability, (4) *Professor*—a doctor's degree earned in a field of specialization and demonstrated ability in teaching and research.

² "Staffing Higher Education." *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. IV, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, December 1947, p. 53-54.

Retirement

Provision for retirement is an accepted practice in industry, business, and government. An actuarially sound retirement plan is evidence of a university's acceptance of its obligation to provide the means by which faculty members may maintain a reasonable standard of living in the "after teaching years" of life. The conference retirement group recommended that a desirable plan for the retirement of college or university employees should adhere to the following provisions: (1) all regular employees of the institution should be included in the plan, (2) the amount of the retirement allowance should be adequate, amounting to at least one-half of the annuitant's earnings at the most productive time, (3) that reciprocity between publicly supported institutions within the same states and between different states should be established, (4) after thirty years of participation in the system, retirement should be optional regardless of age, (5) after participation in a system for five years, retirement for disability should be provided, (6) retirement should be permitted at age sixty and be compulsory sometimes between sixty-five to sixty-eight years of age, (7) the residue, at the death of an annuitant, should go to his estate, (8) payments to the retirement system by the state or institution should be considered as a part of the deferred compensation, and not a contribution, (9) in systems which use the contributory plan, the total contribution should be made by the employer (so that the annuitant may benefit from sections twenty-three and one hundred sixty-five of the International Revenue Code), (10) payments made by the state to retirement contracts should be made from general funds of the state to prevent earmarking sources of income for specified contributions to a retirement fund.

Faculty Welfare

Improvement in teaching, in research, and in administration can be secured in the degree that the resources of the institution are used to make available to the college personnel selected welfare opportunities that generally are more costly and more difficult to obtain through individual effort. The conference group on faculty welfare recommended certain policies and provisions for enhancing faculty morale and for enriching the instructional leadership in institutions of higher learning.

Health and Group Insurance—The values to be derived by employer and employee from the benefits of group insurance are recognized by business and industrial firms. Current practice in institutions has demonstrated the value of certain group provision in improving professional morale and in maintaining the scholastic standards. The group recommended that all institutions of higher learning provide the faculty with the opportunity to vol-

untarily participate in a plan for hospitalization and accident and life insurance.

Professional Inservice Education—The scope and rapidity of change in present-day society require continuous professional preparation. Providing certain facilities for inservice growth is an effective means to keeping instructional methods and course content appropriate to educational research and socio-economic developments. Faculty personnel should be encouraged, at the expense of the institution, to attend and contribute to educational conferences and conventions. In addition, provision should be made on request for periods of study and research in various fields of specialized interests. Leave should be granted for periods of research services in industry, business and various governmental divisions. Provision for travel and study in other countries should be supported as important aspects of a professional inservice program. The group recommended the granting of a leave of absence for special study for each member of the faculty every two or three years. Special grants should be available to foster research in specialized fields. Responsibility for administering the opportunities made available through the institution's inservice education program should be delegated to a joint group of the faculty and administration.

Teaching Load—During the war years faculty members readily accepted additional teaching and/or related service duties. Heavy teaching loads, either voluntary or on assignment, if continued too long, will lower institutional standards. Every effort should be made in the postwar years to eliminate abnormalities in teaching loads. Reasonable teaching loads provide opportunity and motivation for careful preparation and provide more time for teacher-student conferences. The maximum and minimum of teaching or other professional service hours should be determined by a group of the faculty after cooperative study and appraisal of the purposes and facilities of the institution.

Tenure—The adoption and observance of a clear, unequivocal, and well-publicized plan of tenure by institutions of higher learning will add earned security, dignity, and prestige to one of America's greatest professions. The conference group, while recognizing that varied conditions among American colleges and universities make a universal tenure system impossible, strongly recommended the general statement of tenure rules adopted by the American Association of University Professors and approved by the Association of American Colleges, and the American Association of Colleges of Education. The responsibility to carry out any tenure plan must be accepted jointly by the faculty and the administrative staff.

Academic Freedom—A college or university administration that does not give strong support to academic freedom for the faculty is about as effective

in scholarly leadership as is an airplane without motor power. An atmosphere of moral and intellectual freedom is essential to stimulating inquiring minds to use the scientific method when studying the accumulated knowledge of the past and when seeking appraised solutions to pressing issues and conditions in various fields of human endeavor. The Statement of Principles adopted by the American Association of University Professors, when properly practiced, protects the faculty and the administration of a college or university. The primary role of any institution of higher learning is to provide leadership and resource material that nourish the development of democratic minds and facilitate the search for new knowledge.

Institutional and Personal Balance—The financial and administrative resources of each institution should be used to provide selected conditions that will contribute effectively to the health and happiness of the faculty personnel. Each member of the faculty is also a citizen. The welfare provisions should be administered in a way that the duty of each member of the faculty to perform his citizenship role in the community merits high recognition. Adequate salaries and favorable working conditions are productive means of encouraging each faculty member to practice self-reliance, self-confidence, and creative leadership in his work as a teacher and as a member of a democratic society.

The Preparation of College Teachers

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP R¹

Ruth E. Eckert

*Professor of Higher Education, University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota*

FACED with the impressive responsibility of educating far greater numbers of students and fitting them to meet the peculiarly tragic problems of our world, American college and university leaders have encountered a serious dearth of qualified teachers. The present shortage of college instructors has been conservatively estimated as in excess of ten thousand, while projected expansions in post-high-school opportunity, coupled with retirements and desirable elimination of substandard teachers, may require as many as 250,000 additional staff members by 1960.² Moreover, great numbers of those enlisted must be prepared for college teaching of a very different character, if American higher education is to exert any real leadership in civic, cultural, and international affairs. It was with a sense of profound urgency, therefore, that the present conference group approached the many problems involved in the proper selection and training of college teachers.

I. The Widening Concept of College Teaching

As the task of education beyond the twelfth grade increases in its dimensions, the traditional concept of college teaching requires some modification. In the first place, new forms of post-high-school education, such as the community college and technical institutes of collegiate grade, challenge the graduate school to develop training programs appropriate to their needs. While certain graduate schools may not be able to do this without jeopardizing discharge of their other responsibilities, the definition of college teaching needs to be generally extended to include service in many types of recognized post-high-school institutions. Elements that might be commonly emphasized in such programs are considered in the present report, with full recognition of the importance of exploring, through further study and experimentation, the distinctive requirements of these various programs.

The responsibilities of the individual college teacher also need to be conceived more broadly. While he is primarily concerned with the stimulation, instruction, and guidance of youth in some field of knowledge and

¹ Group R operated under the chairmanship of Edward K. Graham, assistant dean of faculties, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

² "Staffing Higher Education." *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. IV, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, December 1947, p. 11.

scholarship, looking toward effective utilization in personal and social living of the insights and values so developed, his responsibilities extend far beyond the classroom. A teacher who does not devote some time to advanced study, research, and scholarly writing is likely to become a mere purveyor of information, quickly losing the enthusiasm and sharpened perspective that independent scholarly work normally brings. Also, he must be able to work effectively with his colleagues in developing educational policies and programs, stepping out of his departmental confines to consider maturely the total college endeavor to which his own field of instruction contributes. Service in regional and national professional associations has been customarily expected, but relatively new, at least in the humanities and social studies fields, are the demands which lay-groups are making on the special skills and talents of college faculty members. Such off-campus contacts are valuable not only because of the services actually rendered but because they tend to keep a focus on the relevance of classroom learnings for the problems of our time.

II. Aims in the Selection and Preparation of College Teachers

No program can be intelligently planned without careful formulation of its guiding purposes. The following list suggests some of these, expressed in terms of traits and competencies prospective college teachers will need:

1. A high order of mental ability, properly cultivated to produce both informed intelligence and maturity of outlook.
2. Breadth of educational experience, coupled with a lively and continuing interest in these larger domains of knowledge and human activity.
3. Skill in communicating ideas readily and articulately—in speech, written word, number, and symbol—and in understanding other persons' ideas through reading and listening.
4. Sound scholarship in the subject fields in which he will teach and in related and supporting fields.
5. Physical and mental health, including freedom from objectionable abnormalities and ability to maintain balance and maturity under conditions of emotional stress.
6. Genuine interest in people, which shows itself in understanding and concern for the individual student, along with some developed skill in human relations.
7. Competence in teaching, including insight into the basic principles that underlie his art and a broad understanding of the nature and significance of the teaching profession.
8. A sense of responsibility for his own further education, shown by eagerness to learn and by readiness to accept constructive criticism from others.
9. A developing philosophy of life, emphasizing social vision, integrity of purpose, loyalty to democratic values, and a fundamental respect for the

worth of the individual, which he is demonstrating by applying in his own personal and social relationships.

10. Adaptability, evidenced by readiness to experiment with new ways of doing things and broad sympathy toward such experimentation on the part of others.

All prospective teachers should not be expected to develop these characteristics in equal degree, even if this were possible, since differing patterns of abilities, skills, and motivations will enrich a college faculty. The preservation of uniqueness, of those "angularities" that have made some college teachers especially beloved, seems as important in a democratic society as the development of common understanding and purpose. Nor is it anticipated that the college or graduate school will give equal attention to these objectives. Substantial progress in some of the above dimensions of growth should be achieved long before the individual leaves high school. The significance of these traits will also vary somewhat with the level and types of college courses that the individual will offer. These seem to be the broad directions, however, in which the training program ought to be oriented.

III. Identification and Encouragement of Prospective College Teachers

Problems of selection and training are intimately related, for it is impossible to achieve the foregoing objectives without proper initial choice of candidates. Likewise, discriminating selection cannot occur except as broad-gauged training programs are developed and faculty members become alert to recognize the first signs students give of promise in this field.

If the ablest young people are to be recruited, talented individuals from all economic and cultural groups in the United States should be encouraged to consider the possibilities of college teaching. Such recruitment should be a conscious objective throughout the undergraduate program and should be extended into early graduate years. Exploratory experiences in sharing educational responsibilities in undergraduate classes might be used to test students' genuine interest in this profession, and skilled counselling should help to confirm the decisions of those who possess the qualities of mind and spirit essential to successful teaching. Prospective teachers should also be encouraged to secure other types of work experience, through community service or industrial employment, in order to enrich their background for college teaching.

Such deliberate recruitment will flourish best in colleges and universities where good teaching is respected and honored. For the most potent argument in meeting the increasingly serious competition of business, government and other professions for the services of outstanding young men and women, is the college teacher himself. In those institutions which have created an

atmosphere conducive to superior instruction, young people will be stimulated to consider seriously the many challenges, satisfactions and rewards of college teaching.

Financial aid in the form of scholarships, fellowships, grants-in-aid and loan funds should be used to implement personal encouragement, enabling gifted young people to undertake advanced studies without undue concern for financial problems. Also, well-endowed fellowships would enable promising young instructors to return to graduate schools for training especially designed to promote effective college teaching.

Whatever means are used to select and encourage students to begin such training, those who look forward to college teaching ought to be formally identified early in their graduate programs. This seems essential if appropriate educational experiences are to be devised for them. Moreover, they should be encouraged to develop a professional esprit de corps, so that they "look upon themselves as teachers and not as chemists, psychologists, or historians,"³ and that all their further study will be viewed in relationship to this goal.

IV. Responsibilities for the Training of College Teachers

With its restricted curriculum and its excessive emphasis on research, the Graduate School has been singled out by many as "the villain of the academic drama," constituting the chief obstacle in developing a functional training program. This is a serious charge, since about two-thirds of all those who receive the Ph.D. degree become college teachers.

Admittedly, many fundamental changes must be made and a new spirit infused in the program of advanced study if students are to be prepared realistically for college teaching. But whatever fault there is seems to lie deeper than the graduate school, which is itself a creation of college faculties. New patterns of advanced instruction will be developed only as individual faculty members become convinced of the importance of this problem. Hence, the first step on most campuses will be to give concerted study to problems of improving college teaching and according it the recognition it deserves. A second step will be to develop a cooperative effort, especially among those faculty members who offer graduate instruction, to devise appropriate patterns for training college teachers. Graduate school deans are in an especially strategic position to give leadership in this endeavor. While the approaches used will properly vary from campus to campus, the development of such programs should be made a matter of all-

³ McGrath, Earl J. "Provisions for General Education in American Colleges and Universities," paper presented at the National Conference on Higher Education, March 1948, p. 11.

university concern, so that the resources of the entire institution are increasingly mobilized to this end.

In the earlier developmental stages it would seem strategically unwise to strive for collective action of a graduate faculty, which might be embodied in uniform rules or regulations for the training of college teachers. Rather, individuals and departmental groups ought to be encouraged to experiment freely in developing suitable programs, using such projects as a demonstration to other departments and divisions of what can be done. Along with increased flexibility in the curriculum, which will be essential in such a venture, must go increased flexibility of spirit, looking toward the use of the hours and energies of the prospective teacher where they will count most. By such a combination of grass-roots experimentation and university-wide study and support, graduate schools might well make as outstanding a contribution in educating teachers as they have made in training scholars and research men.

But the preparation of college teaching cannot be considered complete, once a doctor's degree has been earned. Presidents, deans, and department heads who employ college teachers must assume their fair share of responsibility for promoting effective college teaching. They can make one important contribution by insisting that the persons they employ have received training relevant to their new duties, thereby exerting a crucial force on graduate faculties to consider the special needs of prospective teachers. In addition, they can stimulate and support the development of inservice training experiences. Encouragement of cooperative studies of educational problems at the local campus level represents one fruitful way of keeping a faculty alert to possibilities of improving the program. Other promising means are through conferences, intervisitation of classes, faculty workshops, support of research and scholarly writing, and occasional leaves for off-campus study, travel or teaching in other institutions.

V. Programs Appropriate for Training College Teachers

The selection and organization of the particular educational experiences included in such programs should be determined by extensive studies of what college teachers actually need in order to discharge effectively both their present duties and those that can be reasonably anticipated. The programs developed and the methods by which they are administered should be viewed as purely instrumental to these ends, being modified imaginatively in the light of new evidences of need.

Adoption of this point of view requires a sharp break with the idea of a single type of program leading to the doctorate. Those students who are preparing for college teaching should be afforded somewhat different educa-

tional experiences than those who are looking forward to careers in research, industry, governmental service, or other fields.

The degree awarded for these differently designed programs is less important than the integrity with which each program promotes its distinctive goals. Hopeful signs are appearing that the Ph.D. program, administered by present graduate faculties, may be used to achieve the desired purposes. This would seem desirable, both because this degree has become the accepted one for college teaching and because the individual's subject field will continue to occupy a position of central importance in his study program. The present graduate school must prove that it has sufficient vitality to respond to the present challenge, however. Otherwise, preparation for college teaching may be allocated to graduate colleges of the new design so ably outlined by Howard Mumford Jones,⁴ or developed largely through other degree programs (such as the Ed. D.).

More important than the degree awarded is the character of the program which leads to this recognition. The following elements seem of cardinal importance in training college teachers:

1. Prospective college teachers should be aided in achieving a broadly based and closely integrated general education. The efforts of high schools and undergraduate colleges to develop functional programs of general education promise to contribute importantly to this end. But the graduate school must recognize its own responsibilities for widening the horizons of prospective teachers with respect to the great problems and issues of contemporary life and for deepening their sense of social responsibility. To stimulate concern for the development of general ideas and values, the scope and quality of the candidate's previous education should be carefully appraised at the time he applies for admission to a graduate sequence planned for prospective faculty members. Personnel services will also constitute effective instruments for promoting a sound knowledge of special needs in this area. The student can then be encouraged not only to remedy defects but to extend his general education through membership in graduate courses and seminars especially designed to promote breadth of outlook and through use of the amazingly varied resources for general education provided on every university campus in the form of special lectures, convocations, forums, concerts, art exhibits, student activity programs and the like.

2. Specialized study in the field in which the individual expects to teach is so important that it should receive major attention at the graduate level. But for prospective teachers the scope of this study will need to be considerably broadened, with more attention given to the history and philosophic implications of the subject involved and to its complex relationships with

⁴ Jones, Howard Mumford. *Education and World Tragedy*, Harvard University Press, 1946, p. 161-71.

other fields of learning and human activity. For some students a reasonably broad departmental major might be appropriate, provided it were supplemented by minors in other fields, while for others concentration in a divisional area would be highly desirable. The recent development of inter-departmental patterns of study at the graduate level, such as the area study programs, promises to provide a broader base for the future teacher of general studies. As Dean Blegen has well said, there is urgent need, "of bringing to bear upon our problems a more catholic understanding than our neat and symmetrical majors of the past tended to produce."⁵

3. Fundamental training in methods of scholarly inquiry should be given, though the emphasis on this objective should not be as great as in programs preparing specialized research personnel. Using Dr. Cowley's provocative distinction between research as "the extension of the boundaries of knowledge and skill" and scholarship as "the extension of the boundaries of understanding,"⁶ the latter involving interpretation, organization and criticism of the research done by others, appropriate training should be provided for both activities. Classes, seminars, and graduate assistantships should be used to help prospective teachers gain insight and skill in the techniques of original research, accurate interpretation of studies made by others, and lucid reporting of findings. The dissertation could also play an important part in cultivating a spirit of inquiry if the topic selected dealt with a problem of major human significance and the student were encouraged to supplement original studies with critical and mature reflection upon the present state of scholarly endeavor in this field, including clear identification of the issues toward which further investigation should be oriented.

4. Prospective teachers should be afforded some professional orientation to their oncoming responsibilities as members of a college instructional staff. The deepened intellectual and spiritual life of the candidate which is promoted by wide-ranging study, by the attainment of real depth and perspective in some one field of knowledge, and by the development of skill in scholarly investigation, will aid immeasurably in arousing his future students to independent effort and in sharing with them his own interest, insight, and sense of values. But skill in teaching cannot be expected merely as a byproduct of good programs of general and specialized education. Too many instances abound in which able scholars cannot communicate ideas effectively or encourage in their students the faculties of criticism and application of the things taught to problems of living. Competence in teaching

⁵ Blegen, T. C. "The Graduate Schools and the Education of College Teachers," *Educational Record*, Vol. XXIX, January 1948, p. 18.

⁶ Cowley, W. H. "Preparation and Professional Growth of College Teachers," paper presented at the National Conference on Higher Education, March 1948, p. 5.

therefore needs to be as carefully developed and cultivated as skill in research now is. In part, this might be promoted through service as a teaching assistant, provided experiences were included primarily for their educative worth and that proper counselling, supervision, and appraisal accompanied them. The currently discussed teaching internship also holds considerable promise, especially if liberal arts, junior and teachers colleges in the regional area cooperate by providing the services of master teachers under whom the interns might acquire many of the abilities they will need in later college service. For these traits, like those research abilities which the graduate faculty has so long prized, can only be learned in situations that challenge the student to develop them and that afford him continued practice in their exercise. Moreover, in any endeavor that can be truly deemed professional, such skill must be analyzed into its basic principles. Only then will the individual be free to experiment creatively, combining his procedures in fresh patterns to meet newly discovered needs. Without making systematic instruction in the fields of education and psychology a requirement, as is done for prospective elementary and high school teachers, graduate faculties ought to explore the resources of their own campuses for such orientation to college teaching. Certainly the prospective teacher should be helped to understand the nature of the learning process, to clarify the basic purposes of instruction in his field, and to gain a clear view of the entire educational program within which his own skill and talent will be exercised.⁷ Courses, seminars, and colloquiums should be developed, not to provide definitive answers to the problems college teachers encounter, but to encourage critical study of them and utilization of the best thinking and experimentation currently available on these points.

VI. Need for Research and Experimentation

The faculty of every institution that educates college teachers or that employs the products of such programs ought to participate in searching studies of the relevancy of this training, as judged by the later faculty service of those so educated. Likewise support should be given—both financially and spiritually—to those who are ready to pioneer in devising more appropriate patterns. Only as the many problems of teaching are thoughtfully studied within the walls of the college and graduate school is there substantial hope of recruiting the ablest young men and women to this profession and preparing adequately for their high responsibilities.

⁷ For a more detailed description of these aspects of professional preparation, see Eckert, R. E. "A New Design for the Training of College Teachers," *Junior College Journal*, Vol. XVIII, September 1947, p. 25-33.

PART V. ORGANIZATION

Coordination of Facilities through Statewide and Regional Planning

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP S¹

Joseph E. Gibson

*President, Northwestern State College of Louisiana
Natchitoches, Louisiana*

The Need for Coordination

COORDINATION of institutions is today one of the emergent needs in American higher education. The need is scarcely more acutely felt on the state level among publicly supported institutions than on the area level² or the regional level among all types of institutions. The basic reason for the emergency aspect of this need is the centralizing tendencies of modern society which pull not only nations into closer contact with each other, but states within the Union and institutions of higher education as well. Centralizing tendencies are operating in education no less inexorably than in other fields.

There is another mighty factor operating to this end in higher education. It is the phenomenal expansion in enrollment of colleges and universities, with the consequent rise in costs. As an increasing proportion of the national income is required for education, there is a corresponding increase in critical public scrutiny of the structure and services of educational institutions.

Possibly the geographic institutional structure of higher education in America is more rigid than the structure of other social institutions and less adaptable to change. The degree of dispersion is suggested by the observation that there are 1693 colleges and universities of all kinds. That figure is better understood when it is known that there is about one college for every two counties in the United States. Most of these institutions were established before the day of speedy transportation and lightning communication. Unquestionably, if this structure could be planned *de novo* to serve the best interests of society under present and future conditions, there would be fewer and better institutions. Certainly, too, they would be more strategically located.

¹ Group S operated under the chairmanship of William T. Sanger, president, Medical College of Virginia, Richmond, Virginia. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

² For the purposes of this chapter, "area level" is used to connote a group of institutions in an area smaller than a region, and within one or more states. It may be larger or smaller than a single state.

Since the structure is set, the difficulties of consolidation of institutions on an extensive scale, which would certainly be preferable to coordination, are seen to be almost insuperable. The storm of opposition stirred by even the suggestion of consolidation of institutions within a state justifies this assumption. One alternative is legal provision for allocation of functions of public institutions within a state. Then for all types of institutions at state, area, and regional levels, there is a possibility of voluntary but inclusive cooperation and coordination. Yet the fact that institutions of higher education are usually of honored and sentimental historical growth makes it difficult for them to adapt themselves even in these moderate ways to changed and changing conditions.

The plight of higher educational institutions is the plight of the nations of the world. They are ill-adapted to modern conditions and for the same basic reasons. The remedies are bedeviled by the same obstacles, namely, sovereignty, vested interests, lack of overall and farseeing vision.

At the state level the need for coordination among state-supported, private, and church-connected institutions is high-lighted by competitive enrollments and the duplication of services. Thoughtful people observe that, after all, the support of institutions of higher education through whatever channels is drawn ultimately from the social income. A thoughtful citizen of one state³ who speaks of conditions that obtain to a greater or lesser degree in all publicly supported higher educational institutions calls attention to "the wasteful and indefensible conditions which force institutions to enter into competition with each other for state appropriations and for students." He speaks also of the lack of a coordinated building plan for all the state colleges. He concludes, "I take it that no one who has had any experience with the matter will deny that appropriations made in the past . . . have depended more on what influence particular institutions have in the legislature than on any intelligent consideration of a coordinated plan for all the state colleges."

To say that coordination and allocation of functions will not yield the economies expected by the uninitiated is not to say that coordination is unnecessary. It is to say rather that effective coordination is difficult of attainment and calls for a high order of leadership possessing objectivity and foresight.

At the regional level lack of coordination has been less acute and as might be expected has attracted less attention. Casual questions like these have been asked: Why cannot the library resources of these two graduate schools, so close together, be pooled? Why maintain both these medical schools?

³ Brewton, John E., *Public Education in South Carolina*, p. 8-9.

Why not join the forces of these universities in a well-coordinated program of regional research?

In the South, where the need of providing graduate and professional education for Negroes has arisen, the question of regional coordination of higher education facilities has taken the form of asking why mediocre institutions for the graduate and professional education of Negroes should be established in each state. Why repeat the mistakes made in the case of the institutions for white students? Why not establish regional medical schools and make provision for regional graduate education for Negroes, with each center being supported by several states and providing advantages vastly superior to those that could be provided by any working alone?

For the area level the stage of development of coordination is about the same as for the regional level, and the suggestive questions that are asked are similar.

Definition of Coordination of Institutions of Higher Education

At this point it is well to define just what is meant by coordination of institutions of higher education. It is the explicit, formal, and informal recognition of the unique place of each institution in the planned and planning state, area, or regional scheme of higher education. The planning of coordination is the rational and systematic application of informed intelligence to a study of the needs of society as they may be served by the institutions of higher education.

On the state level, it implies voluntary but inclusive cooperation of the several types of institutions. In the case of tax-supported institutions only it requires legal and structural provision for both voluntary and legal cooperation. At the state, area, and regional levels, there is also implied voluntary but inclusive cooperation on the part of all types of institutions. It seeks to displace competition by cooperation. It is a continuing process which would adjust its aims and procedures to time, place, circumstances, and social conditions. It is not static but requires continuing reappraisal. Eternal vigilance on the part of the coordinating authority on the state-public level, and on the part of component institutions at all levels, is the price of coordination.

Higher education should be indigenous. No system of coordination should be set up which pulls the educational center of gravity away from the individual institution.

The need for coordination is felt in many parts of the country at the upper levels of higher education, especially in such professional schools as medicine, law, and engineering, and generally throughout the graduate level. In this discussion of coordination there is no thought that the several institutions within a state should cease to provide basic general education as well

as continue to provide such service courses as special local circumstances may demand. The latter may seem to impinge on functions allocated elsewhere, but such is not the case. There is a clear understanding of the need for such opportunities in colleges that do not have a statewide clientele.

Purposes of Coordination

Coordination is justifiable to the extent that it can bring the benefits of higher education to worthy students who would not be able to profit by it if dependent upon the facilities available in many individual institutions. In many parts of these United States adequate facilities for higher education are not possible unless resources are pooled. This means that if good results are to be expected without excessive cost to tax-payers and students alike thoroughgoing systematic surveys are required to determine (1) the number and types of institutions, public and private, already serving the community; (2) the number and types of additional institutions needed in a particular community or area; (3) the manner and extent to which existing and new institutions may cooperate to the end that no person who can profit by post-high school education may be denied opportunity.

Great effort should be made always to preserve the significant individual characteristics of the separate institutions so that they may continue to serve the needs peculiar to the community of which they are a part.

The purposes of any coordination, then, are to enable institutions of higher education to achieve three principal objectives:

1. To serve the better needs of the total college population, both present and potential, and through various public services and research activities to contribute creatively and more fully to our culture and social order. This requires that the facilities of higher education at the upper levels be analyzed, and where necessary directed, pooled, and strengthened to the point of producing results not obtainable by any single institution or by all the institutions combined when working separately.
2. To present to the public a picture of the united, and dynamic, and creative contributions of higher education and of its essential creative role in our local, national, and international life.
3. To promote the financial support of institutions of higher education—private, public, and church-related.

Basic Assumptions

Surely enough has been said to establish the need for coordination. The basic assumptions that underlie this discussion are:

1. That under modern conditions there is an emergent and increasing need for coordination among state, area, and regional institutions of higher education for reasons that have been adverted to above.
2. That coordination is inevitable. If it is not provided through planning leadership on the part of higher education, then it will surely be imposed

and set up through a planned and dictated program, and administered by edict from outside authority.

3. That in a democratic society coordination of higher education should be planned and implemented so as to serve all who can benefit significantly thereby.

4. That the spiritual, cultural, and utilitarian values of higher education should be conserved, fostered, and given emphasis appropriate to the needs of the individual and of society.

5. That the democratic processes are implicit in good planning.

Categories of Coordination

In describing coordination accomplished and planned, and in citing examples, it is convenient to divide the discussion from this point into four categories:

1. The state level: coordination of publicly supported institutions.

2. The state level: coordination, voluntary but inclusive, of state, private, and church-connected institutions.

3. The area level: coordination, voluntary but inclusive, of state, private, and church-connected institutions.

4. The regional level: coordination, voluntary but inclusive, of state, private, and church-connected institutions.

At the State Level—Coordination of Institutions Publicly Supported

To point out that on the state level the need for coordination of publicly supported institutions has reached the point of emergency in many states is not to deny that there are in operation many ambitious and effective programs of coordination. In fact, it appears that the greater the need, the greater the likelihood that the particular state has done something to achieve coordination. After all, social action grows out of clear necessity. Numerous states have set up legal structures for the coordination of their institutions of higher education.

Examples of highly centralized structures are Montana, Oregon, North Carolina, and Georgia. Oregon and Georgia have the most elaborate kind of structure with a chancellor of higher education and his supervisors for finance, physical plant, libraries, and a number of the subject fields. Whatever its economies and efficiencies, this type of centralized structure tends to pull the educational center of gravity away from the individual institution. Some authorities insist, however, that this type of administrative structure, headed by a strong central board whose policies are carried out by a determined and indefatigable chancellor, is the only coordination that really coordinates. In North Carolina this type of program was begun with the President of the University of North Carolina being assigned the overall administrative authority without change of title, and the presidents of the several

colleges being designated deans. Curiously enough, the deans were later designated chancellors, in an effort to elevate the dignity of their office and to keep the system from appearing too centralized.

Let it not be forgotten that here as elsewhere, whatever the kind of governmental structure, the personalities involved in its administration have much to do with determining whether it is cooperative and democratic or dictatorial.

Examples of less centralized structures are furnished by Connecticut, Mississippi, North Dakota, and Oklahoma. This type characteristically provides a central board or coordinating commission in control of all state institutions of higher education, and a coordinating officer designated as executive secretary or director of higher education. Sometimes he is a member of the State Department of Education, but usually not. Mississippi has a model law⁴ embodying the best features of this type of structure. The best feature of the Mississippi structure is that it offers the possibility of allocation of functions and coordination, while leaving to the several institutions autonomy to work out their own individual programs. Specific qualifications and powers and duties proposed⁵ for the executive secretary suggest the kind of day-to-day administration found possible.

It should be reiterated that in any such program the ultimate achievements of this or of any other type of structure depend on the vision, character, and determination of the persons who make up the board and professional staff. While the Mississippi Board has done some very outstanding work, it has faltered in making some of the necessary allocations and in carrying through a complete program of coordination.

A third type of structure for publicly supported institutions is that which provides dual authority for higher education, one board for the university and another for the other colleges. Louisiana furnishes one example of this and California another. While this is a long step in advance of no coordinating authority at all, it tends to lack the powers necessary for adequate coordination, except that in California, a liaison committee that includes members of the State Board of Education and the Regents of the State University serves to foster a unified point of view. In certain cases of dual structure there are constantly recurring dichotomies of purpose and practice that tend to promote competition rather than cooperation and tend to defeat coordination.

The fourth type of state structure is, of course, that which has a separate board for each institution and leaves to the legislature and to the pressures of political influence the determination of a state's program of publicly sup-

⁴ Gibson, Joseph E., and Others. *Mississippi Study of Higher Education*, 1945, p. 396-402.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 26-28.

ported higher education. South Carolina furnishes an example⁶ of a structure that provides for no coordination except that done by the legislature.

At the State Level—Voluntary Coordination of All Types of Institutions

The coordination of public, private, and church-connected institutions within a state is being undertaken on a voluntary but all-inclusive basis in a number of states. Usually it is under unofficial leadership such as the state association of colleges. One example is found in Pennsylvania, where the Association of Colleges has been transformed from a conference meeting for periodic discussion into a working body with a definitive program constantly being adjusted to the state's needs. The Ohio College Association furnishes another example of voluntary cooperation of all institutions of higher education within a state. There are numerous other examples of voluntary coordination which, but for the lack of space, might be cited. Some authorities are of the opinion that voluntary coordination is the type most promising of lasting benefits.

Coordination at the Area Level of All Types of Institutions of Higher Education

Coordination on the area level is almost always voluntary, and the area may be within a state or may lie in more than one state. Examples of recent planning for such coordination are the University Center at Nashville, the Georgia center, the North Carolina-Duke University cooperation, and the Tulane-Louisiana State University arrangement for graduate school and library cooperation. Two institutions in the Virginias furnish an example of a contract for wise cooperation in a professional program. Students who begin their medical studies at the University of West Virginia may complete the third and fourth years of the program at the Medical College of Virginia.

Another area example comes from Virginia. The nine institutions included in the Richmond Area University Center operate through this state-chartered body to pool their resources and obtain additional resources for a cooperative program.

Coordination at the Regional Level of All Types of Institutions

Coordination of regional higher education is at once the oldest and the most currently discussed type of coordination. The work of national bodies such as the United States Office of Education, the American Council on Education, the Association of American Colleges, and the Division of Higher Education of the National Education Association has been significant. More

⁶ Brewton, John E. *Op. cit.*, p. 1-12.

constraining, however, have been the operations of such regional accrediting associations as the Southern Association and the North Central Association, which have been factors in forming the pattern of higher education since the 1890's.

More recently regional cooperation has shown itself in the participation of several states in the support of Meharry Medical College at Nashville. Then there is the cooperation in a graduate program in the states of the TVA territory—cooperation between the TVA laboratories and the universities. Most recent of all is the effort of the Southern governors and educational leaders to enable thirteen or fourteen Southern states to contribute to the support of strong regional institutions for professional and graduate education. While this effort aims at the development of regional institutions for Negroes, it is not directed solely to that end. It rather takes broad recognition of the fact that regional coordination is long overdue; that while mistakes have been made that cannot be fully rectified, it is not necessary to go on making mistakes; and that in the development of higher education for Negroes the same mistakes need not be made in the guise of equalizing educational opportunity. A bill to give legal authority for such cooperation is now before Congress under the description, "A bill to promote the general welfare by providing assistance to the several states entering into compacts, contracts or agreements for the joint establishment, maintenance or use of facilities for specialized programs of higher education."

• • • •

There are two words of caution that seem appropriate. First, a system of coordination that works well in one state or region or area may not be appropriate to another. To utter this truism would not be necessary except for the apparent assumption to the contrary by the President's Commission on Higher Education. Second, the recommendation of community colleges by this same body and other current references to such colleges by national educational bodies may give community leadership of the too zealous kind the notion that there could be a worthy higher educational institution at every county site. In many localities the functions of the proposed community colleges are already better served by existing colleges. Certainly, the potentialities of existing colleges should be taken into account prior to the establishment of additional facilities.

The next few years will be a time for decision with reference to coordination of higher education—a time for far-reaching decision that may fix the whole pattern and determine the quality of higher education for many years to come. Hence it is exceedingly important that this trend be guided by educators and by citizens with an adequate understanding of the important, immediate, and remote consequences.

The gist of this chapter then is this—that the guidance of coordination of higher education should be done, not on the basis of political opportunism or localism, but on thinking and planning by those able to think and plan. Perhaps our safest reliance is upon the organizations of state college associations, state surveys, and self-direction from within the institutions themselves.

It is exceedingly important also that this subject be kept high on the list of educational studies sponsored by the Division of Higher Education of the National Education Association.

The Future of the Independent Liberal Arts College

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP T¹

E. C. Buckner

Acting Dean, Central College, Fayette, Missouri

THE independent liberal arts college is hereby defined as one which is not supported by public funds. According to the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education there are 587 such colleges in this country under private control, affiliated with Protestant denominations, or with the Roman Catholic Church. The future of these colleges depends upon the preservation of their special role, value, and responsibility in American education.

At the present time there is high regard for the independent liberal arts college. If these colleges maintain their broad objectives as expressed in the development of responsible citizenship, they will remain a distinctive feature in the American educational system. Their existence is going to depend upon the liberal arts training needed for the vocations, experimentation in educational procedures, and the need for the development of a philosophy of life based upon moral and spiritual values. They must preserve and improve their program to develop the "whole man."

The independent liberal arts college, by virtue of its size, homogeneous grouping of faculty and students, and its freedom from public support and control, has the special responsibility of providing planned and organized means for giving direction to student living and personality development with special emphasis upon moral and ethical values. If the college is church-related, it is free to evaluate and promote the pattern of living and personality development in harmony with religious values.

Trends in Enrollment

The independent liberal arts colleges find themselves somewhat strengthened at the present time in enrollments, finances and loyalty of supporting groups, and broadened interest in higher education.

Enrollments are considerably above the pre-war years but are tending to

¹ Group T operated under the chairmanship of William W. Edel, president, Arkansas State College, State College, Arkansas. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

level off. Some institutions are planning voluntary reductions with goals set below present high levels but above pre-war norms.

Small colleges have enabled faculty members to give more personal attention to students. But it has become evident through recent experience that increased enrollments, due to easy procurement of students, often change the tone of an institution: classes are increased in size; more lecture work and less student participation becomes a necessity; personal contact with students is lost. Such changes weaken one of the distinctive features of the liberal arts college, the special student-faculty relationship.

Some colleges have felt an obligation to expand their facilities. This should be done only if it is possible to do so without undermining fundamental objectives, institutional homogeneity and cohesiveness, and standards for the selection of students for entrance. Expansion introduces problems of increasing the number of faculty members and administrative officers, and contributes to the complexity of administrative organization.

Under present increased enrollments the independent college has no difficulty in attracting students of above-average ability. Such students can continue to be attracted if something superior is offered in the way of education. The college which maintains an adequately trained and paid faculty and an atmosphere of great care for the individual, which can prepare students for the life they are to live, both vocationally and educationally, and makes independent and responsible persons from individuals who come to it almost wholly dependent will have little difficulty attracting the desired students.

Future expansion of community colleges may seriously affect the enrollment and organization of the liberal arts colleges. Community colleges will tend to increase interest in higher education thus producing a corresponding increase in enrollment. The low income group will of necessity go to public institutions which offer reduced costs. The enrollment of higher income groups in the liberal arts college will not be materially reduced. But this shift toward the higher income groups may create a real problem of class distinction in education.

The community colleges must conduct two types of programs if they are going to be of greatest service. One group of students will need vocational training which will terminate at the end of two years. The other group will be interested in professions, many of which require or recommend four years of pre-professional training. This latter group will include many students who want courses of the general education type during the first two years, to be followed by two years with emphasis upon a major field of interest. The community college might well give the first two years in general education and permit the liberal arts college to absorb these students for the

last two years of work. Thus it is possible that better qualified students will come to the liberal arts college.

Finance

One of the pressing problems facing the liberal arts college is that of providing funds to aid well-qualified students to go to schools of their choice. Since they cannot always afford the increased costs of the schools they wish to attend, some help must come to them in the way of scholarships or opportunities to earn a portion of their expenses. Both college and student profit by the provision of funds for this purpose. Members of conference Group T believed that it is beneficial to the students receiving aid and to the college granting it, for the students to give some form of service in exchange for assistance received.

Recent inflation has tended to hamper the financial program of independent colleges. Per capita endowment-income decreases as the number of students increases unless the endowment is increased proportionately. Even when the number of students has not increased, the operation costs have increased tremendously in the last few years. The differential between costs and income from endowment must be met by one or more of the following ways: (1) by increased tuition and other charges; (2) by funds raised to meet operating expenses; (3) by increased endowment.

An institution is justified in increasing fees if it has superior service to offer. However, each increase in costs tends to bring another group of students into the marginal area where there exists the unwillingness or inability to pay. Pride and other personal and psychological factors may deter eligible and deserving students from applying for scholarships in schools with high tuition costs. Although these scholarships may be enough to pay the major part of tuition and fees, they are not enough to allow an individual from a low income family to participate in the normal student life of the school. Thus, rising costs may cause economic rather than more significant factors to become a principal determinant in the selection of students or schools: numerous superior students will of necessity choose less expensive schools and numerous colleges under the same necessity will choose students who can pay, although they may not be the serious minded, purposeful students whom every college considers ideal.

Effort should be made to acquire additional funds and endowments from alumni, supporting groups, business and industry. In gathering these funds, consideration should be given to the following points: (1) preserving the principles of academic freedom; (2) providing scholarships and loans to worthy students; (3) holding tuition to the lowest feasible level in order to resist the tendency toward class distinction in education.

Several methods of fund raising are practical: (1) employment of fund-

raising firms; (2) solicitors; (3) direct contacts with business and industrial men; (4) support of strongly interested local industries; (5) strong and effective public relations including alumni groups, and denominational constituents; (6) living endowment program; (7) development of an extensive athletic program; (8) insurance policies taken out by graduating seniors in lieu of other memorial.

In the procurement of funds, the independent college must consider the danger of accepting gifts and donations which demand commitments of policy. If the college is to maintain true freedom and set itself as the educational bulwark of American independence, it must not be hampered by gifts carrying demands for radical or unwarranted changes of policy.

Curriculum

The independent liberal arts colleges have special responsibilities in the areas of moral and ethical values. They must seek to develop the special capacities and interests of their students in order to produce mature, resourceful citizens capable of dealing with the complex problems arising in our modern civilization.

These colleges have placed major emphasis upon specific requirements which are in the area of general education. This type of education can be defined as non-vocational. It acquaints students with the broadly significant areas of human experience. It is the type of training which enables individuals to understand and employ the knowledge that man has gained about himself and his environment. It seeks to develop a philosophy of life, to perpetuate our heritage, to promote international understanding, to aid in social adjustments, to prepare for good citizenship, and to contribute to the richness of life.

On the other hand, general education should not be separated sharply from vocational. Vocational education is necessary from the standpoint of the individual and the nation. It should be possible to develop a program combining vocational and general education, each enriching the other. Professional schools are beginning to realize that they defeat their own purposes when they allow vocational training to crowd out liberal education. Today they are disposed to encourage students to procure a general education in the liberal arts college and to build upon that structure in advanced work, which is vocational or professional.

At the present time the proponents of the liberal arts college do not want a highly developed vocational type of education. Neither do they want a tradition-bound curriculum but one which can be expanded to meet the ever changing needs of a complex civilization. They expect the college to stress and improve its program of general education.

The liberal arts college should be careful not to expand its instructional

program beyond the point of effectiveness, offering only those courses, vocational and pre-professional, in keeping with its facilities, size and purpose. Changes should be made in so far as they are necessary in obtaining objectives rather than made in the objectives themselves.

Some of the changes which are taking place at the present time are: (1) general introductory courses; (2) psychological rather than logical introduction of subjects; (3) great book programs; (4) development of divisional and functional cores of interest; (5) visual education programs; (6) comprehensive examinations; (7) organization of communication areas; (8) remedial programs.

One of the most important functions of the liberal arts college is to train teachers. At the present time there is more and more emphasis upon subject matter and less upon professional courses in education. This is evidenced by the tendency of teachers colleges to become liberal arts colleges.

Faculty

There is need of special preparation for teaching in the liberal arts college and conference Group T agreed that the typical graduating school program with its emphasis on research does not meet this need. It believes that what is needed is broader training in areas of study related to the specialized field in which a teacher is to work. The curriculum should be made less restricting.

The faculties of colleges are, at the present time, stronger than before World War II. This is due in part to the elimination of the men and women who were not genuinely interested in teaching as a vocation. They have gone into other fields of work which offer more lucrative salaries. Faculties are stronger, too, because requirements have reached a higher level. More teachers are securing advanced degrees before making applications for teaching positions.

It is well known that faculty salaries are, in general, not commensurate with the importance of the service which teachers render to society. Neither are they comparable to those received in other professions. However they are on the rise because the efficiency of a college faculty cannot be maintained unless salaries provide comfortable, if not luxurious, living.

The conscientious teacher feels the need to grow professionally. To this end continued study in graduate schools is important, attendance at workshops and conferences should be encouraged, and time to study recent developments in special fields should be provided. All of these things are important and require adequate salaries to make them possible.

Promising undergraduate students cannot be encouraged to choose teaching as a profession if salaries are not raised above the marginal area. The

prospective teacher must be assured of security during his active career and after he has reached retirement age. He has a right to expect nothing less.

Possible Future Reorganization

There is a tendency to limit the size of the independent liberal arts college. What this size shall be depends entirely upon what the college is trying to do. If a college is meeting its objectives it may do so with a small number of students or, if finances, faculty and plant permit, with a large number. But the college with a large enrollment gets on dangerous ground when there is not a close relationship between students and faculty. Some colleges may find it necessary to reorganize and to cut back enrollments in order to maintain their objectives.

The independent liberal arts colleges cannot prevent the establishment of community colleges even if they desired to do so. They must stand ready to cooperate and to furnish leadership in the development of programs which tend to equalize opportunities for higher education. They must be concerned with the proper integration between the curriculums of the proposed community colleges and their own, wherever there is a continuity of program.

The liberal arts colleges cannot afford to overlook the advantages of statewide or regional cooperation and planning. In many regions, church-related colleges supported by one denomination could well afford to examine their situations. Perhaps there is need of consolidation in order to provide a stronger program of liberal education under the auspices of a particular denomination.

Summary

The independent liberal arts college must operate upon a sound financial structure. However, a college which depends upon sound financial management alone is probably on the road to extinction. It must never lose sight of the fact that the independent liberal arts college has existed for many decades because of its program of general education in the first two years and its areas of specialization in the last two years.

It is the firm conviction of the members of this conference group that the independent liberal arts colleges have an honored and essential place in the future of American education. Although they are aware of the great influence of economic factors on the wellbeing of the colleges themselves, they dare to assert their faith in the future because they have seen with their own eyes the dedicated self-sacrificing faculty and administrative officers, their intense loyalty to institutions and students alike, their heroic devotion to human welfare and their unswerving service in the pursuit of truth. As long as the independent liberal arts colleges are staffed by administrative officers and faculty members who maintain these ideals, they shall deserve their place in the American scene.

Organization of the University for Administration and Development

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP U¹

Walter R. Goetsch

*Director of Student Affairs and Associate Professor of Higher Education
State University of Iowa, Iowa City*

THE unprecedented influx of students into American colleges and universities following World War II brought with it many complicated problems of administration and coordination. Most colleges and universities began as comparatively small schools. As such, it was unnecessary to pay close attention to the details of internal organization since the president and the or two other administrators easily handled all problems which arose. But most institutions of higher learning are today no longer small and simple organizations. Large faculties and large student bodies have brought into focus the problem of having a clear understanding of the location and delegation of authority and responsibility within the institution.

The internal organization of colleges and universities seems to have developed out of the exigencies of the moment rather than from careful and long-range planning. With the exception of the president and the faculty there is very little similarity among schools. Some schools have many administrative officers with varying titles while other schools have only a small number of administrators but operate with quite a few administrative committees of the faculty. Furthermore, the differences in the duties of administrators on separate campuses is even more varied than the number of officers found or the titles which they hold. Consequently, it is necessary that any discussion of effective administration begin with the assignment of functions to the basic areas of service which are necessary for operation and then to consider the other elements in the total pattern of educational operation and management at the college and university level.

Basic Areas of Service

Management analysts are agreed that effective administration demands a clear delineation of lines of responsibility from the sources of control to the

¹ Group U operated under the chairmanship of Claude E. Puffer, Dean of Administration, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

areas of operation and measurement of end product. The two steps in this process are a definition of the source of control and the identification of areas of service subordinate to the source of control to which responsibilities are delegated. In considering the latter step four rather obvious areas of service are found. These are: (a) academic administration, (b) student personnel administration, (c) business administration, and (d) administration of field services and public relations. Under each of the areas together with the area of control may be located all the functions which a college or university can be expected to carry out.

Control

The American system of colleges and universities is predicated on the idea that final authority over all matters is vested in a Board of Control which represents the total constituency of a particular institution. The legality of this fact has been tested by court action and, consequently, is seldom questioned today. The Board of Control should be a policy determining body and should refrain from administering its own policy. This point is basic to the concept of educational administration for upon it rests the entire proposition of the delegation of authority and responsibility to specialists and experts in the respective fields of operation.

The Board of Control considered as a body representing the total constituency, must be thought of as a board of laymen, not as a group of professional educators. In this sense it will delegate to the experts, the faculty, the job of formulating the institution's basic patterns of operation. When the consensus of expert opinion is reported to the Board, it will consider and weight such opinions in light of the will and the desires of the constituency of the institution. When the opinion of the experts is in harmony with the will and desire of the constituency it is adopted by the Board and thus becomes a policy under which the institution operates.

However, the Board of Control also has a supervisory function. It needs to make sure that all operational decisions are made in line with the adopted policy. For this purpose it employs an executive officer, the president of the institution. To the president the Board delegates the responsibility of making all operational decisions consistent with adopted policy and of pointing out to the Board the shifts in policy needed because of changing conditions. It is the misplacing of this supervisory function which often causes difficulty in institutional operation. When the Board of Control refuses to delegate this function to the president of the institution and reserves it for itself, then it is actually administering its own policies. Experience and considered judgment indicate that a single individual, an expert, can do a more efficient job of administering policy than a group of individuals who are usually all

laymen in the field. Consequently, it is logical to decide that the Board of Control should refrain from administering its own policy.

If the Board of Control should employ a single executive officer for the purpose of administering all adopted policies it then follows that all other employees of the institution should be subordinate to that executive officer. When more than one executive officer is appointed by the Board of Control then dual or multiple control of administration results. The available evidence points clearly to the conclusion that single control is much to be preferred over dual or multiple control.

In small institutions the president can handle directly many of the problems which come up for decision. However, as the institution grows this becomes increasingly more difficult. Consequently, the delegation of responsibility and authority by the president to other administrative officers is used to insure effective administration. Delegation of authority makes it necessary to restudy institutional relationships so that a definite line of authority may be established. This restudy should locate similar functions into a single area to be headed by an administrative officer responsible to the next in authority. The number of administrators reporting to the next in authority should decrease as the authority rises higher. No set formula is available to determine the optimum number of persons to report to the next higher authority. Experience dictates, however, that this number always be held to the absolute minimum. This report recommends four administrators at the level reporting directly to the president. Each of these persons, whatever his title may be, would head up one of the four areas in which the usual functions of an institution are located.

No attempt is made to identify by title the staff to carry out the functions under each of the four top administrators who report directly to the president. In the first place titles vary in meaning from campus to campus, and second, these areas are not water-tight compartments but cooperating areas so that it might be entirely possible, though seldom feasible, that one administrator be assigned functions in more than one area and thus be responsible to more than one higher authority. Each institution will need to assign these functions to an administrator in line with the local campus situation.

Academic Administration

Into this area fall all the functions having a direct relationship with the instructional program. These functions could be listed as follows: (a) evaluation, improvement and coordination of curriculum, instruction, and research including the athletic program; (b) employment, promotion and welfare of instructional and research personnel; (c) standards of admission, scholarship, and graduation; (d) summer sessions and extension programs;

(e) preparation of instruction and research budgets; and (f) library, museum, archives, and research services.

Student Personnel Administration

The administrator of student personnel services must coordinate all activities which are designed to permit the student to participate in the total educational program. From this point of view the functions in this area would include: (a) supervision of (1) housing facilities, (2) social life, (3) student organizations and government, (4) personal and group conduct, (5) health and recreation, (6) vocational and personal counselling, (7) student publications; (b) assistance on (1) employment, (2) scholarships, (3) loans, and (4) placement; and (c) responsibility for (1) admissions, (2) registration, (3) making of schedules, (4) program and course counselling, (5) advising on study difficulties, (6) keeping of academic records and (7) making of academic reports.

It should be pointed out that it is entirely feasible to locate the functions of admissions, registration, making of schedules, academic advising, and keeping of academic records in the area of academic administration if it is held that these services have the same direct relationship to the instructional program as the functions listed in the previous section. The fact that on many campuses these functions are being carried on successfully as part of the academic administration indicates that it is possible to locate them thus. However, since they are services designed to permit the student to participate in the instructional program and not functions directly related to policy formation and instruction it seems more logical to place them under student personnel services than under academic administration. Which of these points of view is appropriate in any individual institution must be determined in accordance with the particular local problems found in that institution.

Business Administration

The area of business administration includes those functions which provide for the physical setting in which student and faculty activities operate. Business administration thus includes: (a) execution of the budget; (b) accounting, purchasing and auditing; (c) supervision and maintenance of buildings and grounds; (d) operation of auxiliary enterprises such as book stores and dining services; (e) operation of office services such as mimeographing, mail service, and messenger service; and (f) the procurement and supervision of non-academic personnel.

Field Services and Public Relations

These functions are grouped together because, by and large, they are ways

and means of interpreting the institution to the public. Included here are: (a) press and radio, (b) speakers' bureau, (c) publications, (d) alumni affairs, and (e) the fostering of enrollment, public understanding and support.

Coordination of the Areas

The assignment of these functions to staff personnel is one of the most difficult problems facing top administrators in colleges and universities. Efficiency of operation and clear delineation of lines of authority need not be sacrificed if the method for coordination of the areas is understood by all. Authority for making decisions at all levels must be fixed with a clear understanding of where and how appeal from a decision can be made. But those in whom the right to make decisions is vested must realize that this is a responsibility and a privilege which usually assumes proper and adequate consultation with all parties concerned. Since all the members of the staff of an institution are responsible for a part of an indivisible task—the education of the student—it is essential that the closest possible cooperation exist between them. Such cooperation demands that clear lines of communication be established between staff members so that complete understanding may be had on the initiation, operation, and evaluation of the services performed. A single pattern of administrative organization for American higher education is neither feasible nor desirable, yet agreement on the proper location of functions such as was reached by the group submitting this report can go far towards developing a more efficient administration on college and university campuses.

Faculty Organization

It was pointed out in the previous section that the Board of Control should delegate the function of proposing the educational policy of the institution to experts, namely, the faculty. Consequently, the faculty will need to be organized in some fashion in order to carry out this responsibility.

Where the institution is made up of only one college a simple form of organization naming officers and committees, listing privileges and duties of members, and outlining procedures to be followed by the body will suffice. When the institution is made up of more than one college, an overall faculty organization is needed so that the principles of operation which affect everyone in the institution, regardless of their college affiliation, are determined and applied consistently.

At such a time that the total faculty becomes unwieldy because of the size of the body or because of the distance between campuses, a committee organization usually known as the university senate should be used. Ten principles of senate organization were agreed upon by the group. These are:

(a) A senate should consist of no more than 10 percent of the total faculty. (b) It should be made up of both exofficio (administrative) and elected (teaching) members of the faculty. (c) Membership in the senate should be by colleges. (d) Membership should be so determined that no one college has enough representatives to control the majority. (e) All faculty members on permanent tenure should be eligible for membership. (f) In general it is desirable to determine a policy whereby faculty members not on permanent tenure are represented in some way in the senate. (g) In order to assure continuity of policy a system of overlapping terms should be established for senate members. (h) In most cases it is desirable that the head of the institution be the presiding officer of the senate. (i) Senate action should be considered final on all matters within faculty jurisdiction. However, a system should be inaugurated whereby all senate action is reported back to all faculty members for their information. (j) The senate should be permitted to discuss, pass upon, or recommend on all matters pertaining to the institution, even those over which the faculty has no control.

College faculties should be autonomous within the limits set by the overall institutional faculty. Unless a college faculty is unusually small, it should, for efficiency, operate through committees. However, the number of committees should be held to a minimum. In general the following five committees should prove sufficient, (a) committee on admission policies, (b) committee on curriculum or course of study, (c) committee on rules of procedure, (d) committee on scholastic standing, and (e) committee on faculty personnel policies. Matters which do not fall within the usual jurisdictional limits of these five committees are generally handled best by ad hoc committees. Membership on the five permanent committees should be by election with provision for overlapping terms. All committees should be considered as recommending bodies and should report back to the parent body for action. Administrative committees are generally not desirable.

Faculties of non-degree granting units within a college such as departments or divisions should be organized and operated on a "committee of the whole" principle. Such faculties have as their main functions the determining of departmental courses of study and the recommending of departmental personnel.

Student Participation in Administration

A few schools have been quite successful in administering their programs through student-faculty committees. There was general agreement in the group, however, that students should not participate actively in academic affairs. But it is advisable to have a means whereby student opinion on academic matters can be obtained.

In extra-curriculum affairs students may be represented on policy deter-

mining bodies. If they are not represented, clear channels should be set up whereby student opinion and grievances may be brought to the attention of the proper authorities.

Organization of the Graduate School

In general it is desirable to have the graduate school organized as a single unit with a faculty made up of all those who teach graduate courses regardless of their college affiliation. Policy should be determined by an elected faculty council and administered by a dean who should supervise all course work and research. All graduate degrees should be granted by the graduate school but the individual colleges should offer the course and provide the opportunities and facilities for research.

Continuous Self-Evaluation

In order to keep the college or university abreast of the times on organizational matters, institutions should provide means for continuous self-evaluation. Many schools have faculty committees that are liaison between faculty and president or faculty and Board of Control which can be charged with matters of self-study. It is recommended that all schools should have such committees that would periodically study the institutional administrative pattern in its relation to the stated institutional purposes and objectives. Administrative organization is, after all, a local matter because there is no one form which will fit all cases. The effectiveness of any particular form of administrative organization can be judged only by the ease and efficiency with which it facilitates the attainment of an institution's purposes.

Any institutional study of administrative organization must concern itself with both location of function and determination of personnel to carry out those functions. The two must be carried on simultaneously. An *ideal* organization according to location of function and according to assignment of personnel can and should be determined. This *ideal* would, of course, not be static but be subject to constant scrutiny. Next the *actual* organization both by function and by personnel should be determined. Recommending steps to resolve the differences between the *ideal* organization and the *actual* organization will be the continuous job of a self-evaluation committee. Most likely the *ideal* organization will never be fully realized. But since the *ideal* was determined as the most effective organization for achieving the institution's goals, any steps taken in the direction of the *ideal* will be steps in the direction of realizing more perfectly the purposes for which the institution was established.

College and University Public Relations

REPORT OF CONFERENCE GROUP V¹

Robert L. McKinney

*Assistant to the President, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College
Kirksville, Missouri*

THERE is a tendency among many educators today to think of public relations as a newcomer. It is not. It is as old as the profession itself. The first man to learn from another became a public relations officer for the first.

How is it then that only in the past few years has the matter become of such great concern to busy administrators? And why is it that more and more universities and colleges are employing men and women whose entire responsibility lies in the area of contacts with the publics of the institution?

Part of the explanation lies in the complexity of modern civilization. This is an age of "digests." The demands made upon the time of most of us leave little opportunity for the contemplation of things in which we have but a secondary interest hence the digest. The digest keeps us abreast of many matters which would otherwise be overlooked or ignored.

Education today competes for public attention with many matters of local, national, or international importance; and in order for education to get its fair share of recognition its problems, accomplishments, and plans must be presented to the public in the most effective manner possible. Great masses of information about the college or university must be assimilated and reduced to a form acceptable by the average busy man. The development of a new scientific instrument holds little interest for the layman unless he is made to understand how this development may some day effect his way of living.

Then, too, because of the demands made upon it education has itself grown more complex. Parents of our college student of today are amazed at the changes in the "old school." The parents are not alone in their lack of information concerning the developments in the college or university of 1948. The publics supporting the educational plant are likewise entitled to know what is being accomplished on the campus.

The busy president no longer has the time to personally cope with all the details each problem of public relations brings. The alert public relations

¹ Group V operated under the chairmanship of Arthur L. Brandon, director of information services, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan. The list of those who were members of this group will be found by referring to Appendix D.

officer will make certain that available facts are assembled and presented so the president or his representative may draw conclusions and take suitable action.

The Institution's Publics

Generally, the publics of a college or university may be divided into the on-campus groups, and the off-campus groups. And since good public relations must begin at home, a consideration of the on-campus groups may be advisable.

The president of the university or college is invariably the number one public relations officer of the school. He is the symbol of the college. It is to him that the disgruntled alumnus writes. It is to the president that students protest the new registration fee. And he is the target of all criticisms directed against the institution by the supporters of a losing team. He is all things to all people.

By virtue of this position the president is able to exert great influence over the relationships of the institution to its various publics. Those presidents who are gifted with the ability to make friends and influence people favorably toward the school are fortunate. But again the many demands upon the president's time and energies will not permit him to devote more than a fraction of the day to dealing with special problems arising in on- and off-campus groups.

Capable public relations officers can and should be so informed of the activities of the school that many causes of complaints are eliminated before they become serious. Likewise, they should be alert to discover those things which do most to create goodwill and suggest means of exploiting them in the most advantageous manner.

Since the president is the chief public relations officer of the institution, the faculty is one of his most important publics. The president who does not maintain satisfactory relationships with the faculty will not remain long in his position. In smaller institutions where the president can personally know each employee, his program of relationships with them is usually determined by his personal contacts. However, in the larger colleges and universities relationships must be based upon policies and programs disseminated through all available media.

Service employees of the college or university also comprise a large portion of the "official family" and should never be disregarded as agents of good or ill-will for the institution. The telephone operators, office girls, and janitors make far more contacts with the general public during the course of a day than do the more highly paid executives. Considerable attention is being given this very important group by thoughtful directors of public

relations. Every effort should be made to encourage the service employees to feel that they are an important group and that their responsibilities extend much further than the accomplishment of their routine tasks. The telephone operator must be told of the impressions that are formed by unseen visitors when they phone the college. Likewise, the groundkeeper or janitors must realize that they are performing an important function when giving directions to some out of town visitor. Secretaries and office workers almost invariably come into contact with visitors before their employers, and their manner of handling the caller is the basis of that individual's attitude toward the person he is seeking to see.

The student body forms the largest, and sometimes most articulate, group of on-campus publics. A student whose college experience has been satisfying becomes one of the best possible agents for the school. Conversely, the student whose experience as a student was unsatisfactory never fails to oppose the school. Consequently, every student enrolled in the college must be considered in the overall program of public relations. Not only is he one of the most important of the schools publics while a student; but upon leaving the institution he becomes a part of some off-campus public interested in the institution and its welfare.

The ideal program of good public relations with on-campus groups will materially reduce the work necessary with off-campus publics. If the student, employee and faculty are completely "sold" on the university or college, they become effective missionaries among the community.

Off-Campus Publics

While the on-campus publics of the college or university are not difficult to define, the off-campus groups who are interested—or should be—in the institution are many and varied. Here must be considered, the alumni, parents of students, residents of the college community, tax payers, legislators, prospective donors, and a whole host of other publics whose interests in the institution may be centered around the star halfback on the football team.

These publics demand and should receive a specialized treatment in so far as the college is concerned. Legislators are likely to want to know how the tax dollar is being spent. A prospective donor may want to see the architectural drawing of the building he has been asked to build. The parents of students, who are too often overlooked or ignored, want to know how their son or daughter is progressing. Residents of the community are interested in the direction the university or college is planning to expand. They are concerned with traffic problems caused by students and their cars. The housing problem of recent years has of course been one of the common problems of many groups.

Much could be said in elaboration of techniques for reaching these groups most effectively. However, the able public relations officer will develop ways and means of making the right kind of contact with each group.

One of the most important groups which must be reached by every successful university or college is the prospective student group. In fact a very considerable portion of every public relations officer's time is spent in the consideration of ways and means of making the most effective contacts with them.

To imply that each and every public must be reached by a separate and distinctive means is erroneous. The faculty member of the university or college who delivers a commencement address in some large high school will likely have in his audience, a prospective donor, a legislator, alumni, taxpayers, prospective students and their parents, educators and others. If the speech of the faculty member is well-received, he has in one short evening accomplished more for the college in that community than a dozen news stories over the local radio or in the local newspaper might do. On the other hand if the speech is poorly received, more unfavorable reaction against the institution will result than can be overcome in weeks of hard work by the public relations director.

Policy Making Level

It is not intended that the impression be left with the reader that a director of public relations is a panacea for all the ills of an institution. Such a person is only as effective as the cooperation given him by the administration and faculty. Too often the mistake is made of employing a person, assigning him the problem of coordinating all activities which obviously fall under the heading of public relations, and then forgetting that he is around. Then when some unpleasant reaction results from an action of the Board of Control, the public relations officer is called upon to correct the damage done. A judicious use of the experience and counsel of the public relations officer in advance might have eliminated the unpleasant reaction.

To be most effective the individual responsible for directing relationships must operate at the policy making level. He must have the confidence and support of all administrative officers. In fact he must be a part of the administration. Plans of the administrative group must be known to public relations officer well in advance of the time for release of the publicity. The skillful handling of unpleasant news can reduce its impact very greatly. Often the unpleasant news release can be offset by the release of favorable publicity. The contribution of a wealthy donor may in many cases pay the salary of the director of college or university relations for life. Likewise, a properly prepared legislative group may mean the difference of a salary raise for the faculty or the addition of a new building.

Higher Education Needs Support

Public understanding and support is needed by higher education today more than ever before. Problems of enrollment, admissions, faculty, endowments, increased costs, and many other factors need interpretation to the public. Within the past few months there has been considerable evidence that the public is awakening to the needs of education. Increased appropriations for salaries, money for buildings and similar actions have shown that an aroused and enlightened public will not allow the schools of the nation to fall into disrepute. Increased support of higher education brings the added responsibility of informing our publics of the manner in which their monies are being spent.

Enlightened public opinion can be achieved only by intelligent presentation of the aims, hopes, plans, and aspirations of higher education as well as its accomplishments; and since public relations is a two-way street the demands of the public must be brought to the attention of educators. The successful public relations program is one that serves as an outlet for the institution in reaching its many publics and as a source of contacts for the publics in relaying their wishes and ideas to the institution.

Business and industry have for many years recognized the value of carrying on extensive programs of public relations. In many instances the largest single item in their budget will be that which is to be spent for promotion. Nor is industry or business any longer content to increase short-time sales at the expense of long-time relationships. Farsighted leaders in these fields spend generously to determine the ever changing wants of the public. These desires are translated into improved products to the greater satisfaction of all. Education must adopt the same principles of interpretation to the public and of understanding the needs of the various publics.

Many agencies stand ready to do everything possible for education. Manufacturers, business leaders, agriculturists, and peoples of all professions, are anxious to lend a hand to improve our educational facilities. Before they can do so, however, the needs of education must be properly presented to them. Education needs the public and the public needs education. It is a problem of interpretation, appreciation, and understanding.

PART VI

Appendix A

Resolutions Adopted by the Third Annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, March 25, 1948

Resolution I

—Professionally and Technically Trained Personnel

WHEREAS it is the responsibility of society to provide an adequate supply of professionally and technically trained personnel; and

WHEREAS the demands of society for professional services are becoming more extensive and require a more prolonged period of training at a greater cost to both the individual and instructing bodies; and

WHEREAS there is tremendous variability in the capacity of the various states to sustain these various forms of education and training; and

WHEREAS the facts shown by the status of the medical profession is indicative of the situation in most of the major professional areas: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That the Department of Higher Education of the NEA take the leadership in initiating and in seeking the cooperation of interested lay and professional groups in promoting a thoroughgoing study of the needs of medical, educational, veterinarian, pharmaceutical, and other professional services with the purpose of finding ways and means of training the additional personnel to satisfy that need, insuring a procedure that does not discriminate on the basis of race, religion, or national background.

Resolution II

—Veterans Administration Personnel on College Campuses

WHEREAS the recent cuts in the budgets of the Veterans Administration have fallen most heavily upon those services which might be expected to facilitate the economical and effective administration of the educational provisions of Public Law 16 and Public Law 346; and

WHEREAS they place new burdens upon school staffs without proper training in Veterans Administration procedures and without access to Veterans Administration files: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That the Veterans Administration and the members of the Senate and House Committees on Veterans Affairs be asked to seek ample funds to continue on college campuses in sufficient numbers Veterans Administration personnel who will act as liaison officers between the Veterans Administration, and the colleges fulfilling many of the functions of contact, training, and registration officers.

Resolution III

—Attendance of Teaching Faculty Members at Professional Conferences

WHEREAS the improvement of educational programs is dependent upon the extension of educational experience of all faculty members; and

WHEREAS attendance at national regional meetings of organizations interested in the improvement of programs of higher education is highly desirable for such improvement: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That institutions of higher learning encourage in all ways, including payment of expenses, the attendance of members of the teaching faculty at such meetings.

Resolution IV

—Good Teaching as a Criterion for the Promotion of College Faculty Members

WHEREAS in the promotion of members of college faculties overemphasis is generally given to the number of publications credited to the individual concerned; and

WHEREAS this procedure tends to penalize the individual who concentrates on teaching rather than research; and

WHEREAS this situation tends to handicap general education: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That this Conference go on record as favoring greater emphasis upon good teaching as a criterion for the promotion of college faculty members.

Resolution V

—The Community College

WHEREAS there has for many years been apparent the need for an increasing number of community-type colleges of less than four years, offering work at the post-high school level; and

WHEREAS the President's Commission on Higher Education predicts the great need for such colleges in the years ahead and strongly advocates their establishment—such recommendation being one of the highlights of the Commission's report: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association go on record as favoring the community college idea and that it take steps to promote the establishment of such colleges, where needed; and be it

RESOLVED further, That as one method of promoting the idea of the community college, the Department of Higher Education of the NEA, in cooperation with other interested organizations, undertake the preparation, printing, and distribution of a short, illustrated brochure on the community college written in popular style for the use of lay and professional people.

Resolution VI

—Adult Education

WHEREAS the preservation of our free and democratic society depends largely upon an informed and intelligent body of citizens, and demands the continuing education of our adult population: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That an expanded program of adult education is a major and immediate responsibility of all institutions of higher education in this country, and that adequate financial support for such a program should be provided from federal, state, and local funds.

Resolution VII

—Faculty Salaries

WHEREAS salaries for college teachers have been too low, and are at present exceedingly low: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That immediate and continuing effort be made on the part of all institutions of higher learning to correct this most serious condition; and be it

RESOLVED further, That as an important and significant step, a minimum initial salary of \$3000 for nine months for qualified instructors be adopted as a desirable goal; and be it

RESOLVED further, That the great influence and strength of the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association be mobilized to help bring this to reality.

Resolution VIII

—Non-Tax-Supported Liberal Arts Colleges

WHEREAS the non-tax-supported liberal arts colleges are one of the integral parts of American higher education, their increasing needs and problems are deserving of attention and study; and

WHEREAS it is essential that they be preserved for their increasing usefulness in the enrichment of our American culture: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That this Conference recommend to the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association the creation of a Commission to study the needs of the non-tax-supported liberal arts colleges, most especially their needs in the area of finance.

Resolution IX

—Research in Social Science

WHEREAS the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education recommends the expenditure of federal funds for research in the social sciences; and

WHEREAS it is in the minds of men that the defense of peace must be built; and

WHEREAS the gap between scientific and social development is now dangerously wide; and

WHEREAS it will take social science and social engineering to solve the problem of human relationships: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That higher education immediately intensify programs of research in social science and human relationships directed at bringing our social skills abreast of our scientific skills; and be it

RESOLVED further, That federal funds be sought for this purpose in an amount relative to the urgency of the need and to the critical gap now extending between scientific development and human relations.

Resolution X

—Public Relations

WHEREAS higher education is an integral part of the American Way of Life; and

WHEREAS the subject matter of this conference involves vital policies pertaining to the future of higher education; and

WHEREAS the success of higher education depends in part on the development of ways and means of interpreting the problems, policies, and goals of these and other subjects: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That this Conference recommends that the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association and other educational organizations and institutions of higher education recognize and utilize the principles and practices of good public relations in effecting public understanding and support.

Resolution XI

—National Defense

BE IT RESOLVED, That the Third Annual National Conference on Higher Education of the NEA vigorously endorses the positive and constructive statement of policy concerning national defense adopted by the Executive Committee of the Department of Higher Education on March 25, 1948.

Statement on National Defense

1. The United States must maintain adequate military defense against attack or aggression that threatens our security. More specifically, there must be maintained at this time:

- (1) An effective intelligence service
- (2) An adequate program of scientific research and development
- (3) A powerful and up-to-date air force, adequate for defense against attack and for devastating retaliation
- (4) Unquestioned superiority in sea power
- (5) Small but powerful ground forces, trained and equipped for air transportability and for amphibious landings
- (6) A well supported and well equipped National Guard
- (7) A program designed to insure the vitality and efficiency of the organized Reserve
- (8) Adequate stockpiling of essential materials
- (9) Effective measures for prompt industrial mobilization

2. If, after careful investigation, it is the judgment of the Congress that the manpower needs of the armed services cannot be met by voluntary enlistment, selective service should be utilized to secure the additional military manpower needed. Selective service, if adopted, should be designed and administered in such a way as to preserve the full strength of the nation in the fields of science, health, technology, education, and other branches of leadership essential to the strength and stability of our society.

3. In view of the essential defense measures outlined above, universal military training should be rejected as unnecessary and unwise, and as not suited to serving the defense needs of our country under present conditions.

4. The ultimate security of the United States depends upon the strengthening of the United Nations to a point where that organization, with the full support and cooperation of all nations, can eliminate competitive armaments, outlaw war, and guarantee security against attack or aggression to all the people of the world.

Resolution XII

—Regional Conferences

WHEREAS the unquestioned success of this Third Annual National Conference on Higher Education, as well as the two preceding conferences, is generally acknowledged and appreciated; and

WHEREAS consideration has been given by the officers and Executive Committee to the possible development of regional conferences in order to bring to more areas and persons the benefits from successful deliberations and counselling together: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That this Conference endorses such plans and urges that they be carried out at the earliest possible time by those responsible for such provisions.

Resolution XIII

—Third Annual National Conference

WHEREAS the Third Annual National Conference on Higher Education has been the largest and the most comprehensive in scope of education areas studied; and

WHEREAS the arrangements for such a successful conference are the result of careful planning and implementation; and

WHEREAS the responsibility for such evident and excellent results rested with the officers, the Executive Committee, and even more directly with the Executive Secretary: Therefore be it

RESOLVED, That the sincere appreciation of those attending this conference is extended to the officers and Executive Committee for this contribution of time, energy, and ability; and be it

RESOLVED further, That the untiring efforts, courteous consideration, and excellent service of Dr. Ralph McDonald, executive secretary, and all members of his efficient staff are recognized as distinctive contributions to the furtherance of higher education in the United States.

Appendix B

Consolidated Conference Program

MONDAY, MARCH 22

10:00 A.M.-12:00 noon Opening General Session

CONGRESS HOTEL, CASINO ROOM, GROUND FLOOR

Presiding: J. D. Williams, Chancellor, University of Mississippi, Vice President, Department of Higher Education

Address: "The Role of Higher Education in American Society"
O. C. Carmichael, President, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching

Address: "A Program of Federal Legislation for Higher Education"
Alonzo F. Myers, Chairman, Department of Higher Education, New York University; President, Department of Higher Education
"Explanation of the Working Plan of the Conference"
Ralph McDonald, Executive Secretary, Department of Higher Education

2:00-2:50 P.M. Section Meetings

Section on Finance

Chairman: T. L. Hungate, Controller, Teachers College, Columbia University

Keynote Address: "Financing Higher Education Today"
Harry K. Newburn, President, University of Oregon

Section on Student Personnel

Chairman: Francis R. B. Godolphin, Dean of the College, Princeton University

Keynote Address: "Issues Related to Student Personnel—1948"
Donfred H. Gardner, Dean of Students, University of Akron

Section on Curriculum and Teaching

Chairman: Mark H. Ingraham, Dean, College of Letters and Science, University of Wisconsin

Keynote Address: "Provisions for General Education in American Colleges and Universities"
Earl J. McGrath, Dean, College of Liberal Arts, The State University of Iowa

Section on Faculty

Chairman: Franklin H. McNutt, Associate Dean of the Graduate School,
Greater University of North Carolina

Keynote Address: "Preparation and Professional Growth of College
Teachers"

W. H. Cowley, Professor of Higher Education, Stanford University

Section on Organization

Chairman: A. N. Jorgensen, President, University of Connecticut

Keynote Address: "Current Trends in Organization and Coordination of
Higher Education"

Ernest V. Hollis, Principal Specialist in Higher Education, United
States Office of Education

3:00 P.M. Meetings of Study Groups

TUESDAY, MARCH 23

9:00 A.M. Group Meetings until 12:00 noon

2:00 P.M. Group Meetings until 5:00 P.M.

7:30 P.M. Optional Meeting Period for Groups or Sub-Committees

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 24

9:00 A.M. Group Meetings until 12:00 noon

2:00 P.M. Group Meetings until 5:00 P.M.

7:30 P.M. Optional Meeting Period for Groups or Sub-Committees

THURSDAY, MARCH 25

Summation of Conference

9:00-11:30 A.M. *Section Meetings*

12:30 P.M. *Luncheon and Concluding General Session*

Congress Hotel, Casino Room, ground floor

Presiding: Alonzo F. Myers, Chairman, Department of Higher Education,
New York University; President, Department of Higher Education

Reports of Section Chairmen

Discussion from the floor

Report of General Resolutions Committee

Discussion and action upon Resolutions

4:00 P.M. *Adjournment*

Appendix C

History of The National Conference on Higher Education

In April, 1946, the Department of Higher Education called together in Chicago a group of two hundred selected leaders from American colleges and universities to formulate cooperative plans to meet the problems incident to the education of veterans. Organized as a working conference, the participants arrived at findings and recommendations which formed the bases for institutional planning, federal legislation, and many helpful aspects of Veterans Administration policy. The report of this National Conference on the Education of Veterans in Colleges and Universities was distributed widely throughout the United States.

In April, 1947, in response to nationwide demand, the Department of Higher Education sponsored a second conference, known as the National Conference on Higher Education. Five hundred key leaders of American college and university faculties participated. Pressing problems incident to the rapid expansion of enrollment were studied, experience was shared among the participants, and a report of findings was provided in the volume *Current Problems in Higher Education*. Two printings of the volume have been exhausted.

The third National Conference on Higher Education brought together faculty and administration leaders from all sections of the United States, from all types of accredited colleges and universities, representing all departments, branches, and fields of American higher education. Working intensively in twenty-two round table study groups throughout the four days of the Conference, the 560 participants considered major problems facing higher education in 1948 and the years immediately ahead.

With the holding of the third meeting in March, 1948, the National Conference on Higher Education becomes an established event in American higher education. The Department of Higher Education plans to continue the National Conference on an annual basis, with regional conferences as possible variations or supplements.

The rapid growth of the Department of Higher Education—from 352 charter members in 1945 to more than 12,000 dues-paying members from the faculties of 1107 institutions in 1948—makes possible the further development of cooperative study of professional problems in higher education.

The unique place in American college and university life gained by the National Conference on Higher Education has resulted largely from the "grass roots" attack upon the problems, the wide participation in the planning of the Conference, and the unified approach of all branches of the profession representing all types of accredited institutions, all teaching fields, and all sections of the country. A further feature of the National Conference has been the emphasis upon action—direct, practical action in behalf of American higher education as a whole. Affiliation with the entire organized teaching profession through the National Education Association has given strength to the program of action.

Appendix D

List of Participants of the

Third Annual National Conference on Higher Education

March 22-25, 1948

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
V	ADAMS, VIERS W., Director of Ellsworth Center, The University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	D	ARMSTRONG, HERBERT W., Ambassador College, Pasadena, California
C	ADE, L. K., Federal Works Agency, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Illinois	G	ARMSTRONG, ROY, Director of Admissions, The University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina
H	AIKEN, D. W., Chairman, Guidance and Counseling Committee, Mississippi State College, State College, Mississippi	F	ASKEW, J. THOMAS, Director, Veterans Division, and Professor of Political Science, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia
V	ALBRITTON, G. G., Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, Southeastern Louisiana College, Hammond, Louisiana	A	AUBURN, N. P., Vice President and Dean of Administration, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio
K	ALDERMAN, WILLIAM E., Dean, College of Arts and Science, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio	S	BAIRD, WILLIAM JESSE, President, Morehead State College, Morehead, Kentucky
N	ALLYN, ARDEN L., Dean, College of Business Administration, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio	B	BALL, C. S., Finance Secretary, University of South Dakota, Vermillion, South Dakota
G	AMADEN, ROBERT D., Director of Admissions Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Illinois	G	BALLER, WARREN R., Director of Guidance Center, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska
R	ANDERSON, PAUL B., Academic Dean, Otterbein College, Westerville, Ohio	T	BANKSTON, F. H., Professor of Social Sciences, Southeastern Louisiana College, Hammond, Louisiana
P	ANDERSON, PETER, Dean of Instruction, Concordia College, Moorhead, Minnesota	I	BARICH, DEWEY F., University Coordinator of Veterans Affairs, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio
T	ANDERSON, WINSLOW S., President, Whitman College, Walla Walla, Washington	M	BARNES, RICHARD A., Department of Education, Augustana College & Theological Seminary, Rock Island, Illinois
F	ANFINSON, RUDOLPH D., Dean of Men, Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Illinois	C	BARNETT, REVEREND M. G., Vice President, Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
	ANGELL, GEORGE W., Associate Professor of Higher Education, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan	S	BARTH, P. J., Professor of Education, DePaul University, Chicago, Illinois
V	ARMSEY, JAMES W., Director of Public Relations, Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago 16, Illinois		

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
K	BARTLETT, J. F., Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia	P	BLYTH, JOHN W., Dean of the Faculty, Hamilton College, Clinton, New York
T	BARTLEY, O. A., President, Wesley Junior College, Dover, Delaware	H	BODINE, M. G., Head of the Social Science Department, Western Illinois State Teachers College, Macomb, Illinois
M	BASKETT, WILLIAM D., Head of Department of Foreign Languages, Central College, Fayette, Missouri	T	BOITNOTT, JOHN W., Dean, Bridgewater College, Bridgewater, Virginia
G	BEAL, K. MALCOLM, Registrar, The University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida	V	BOLANDER, D. O., Registrar, The Aeronautical University, Inc., 116 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois
G	BEARD, MARSHALL R., Registrar, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa	D	BOND, S. O., President, Salem College, Salem, West Virginia
R	BECKER, C. H., President, Wartburg College, Waverly, Iowa	P	BONNEY, LUTHER I., Dean, Portland Junior College, Portland, Maine
L	BERRY, JOHN R., Dean, School of Education, University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida	T	BOOK, HOWARD, Head of the Department of Education, Manchester College, North Manchester, Indiana
K	BEISWANGER, GEORGE W., Professor of Philosophy, and Chairman of the Division of Philosophy, Georgia State College for Women, Milledgeville, Georgia	T	BRADLEY, RAYMOND J., Registrar and Professor of Education, Macalester College, St. Paul, Minnesota
S	BELLAMY, ALBERT W., Professor of Zoology, The University of California, Los Angeles, California	V	BRANDON, ARTHUR L., Director of Information Services, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
V	BEVIS, PALMER, Director, Community Leaders Department, National Association of Manufacturers, 444 Madison Avenue, New York, New York	G	BRENNEMAN, ELSIE, Director of Admissions and Registrar, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois
P	BIMSON, OLIVER H., Dean, Simpson College, Indianola, Iowa	O	BROOKS, WILEY G., President, Nebraska State Teachers College, Chadron, Nebraska
D	BIRRELL, MARCUS J., President, Wesley College, Grand Forks, North Dakota	N	BROTHERS, E. Q., Dean, Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock, Arkansas
F	BLEDSE, LUTHER E., Registrar and Director of Admissions, Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia	P	BROWN, AARON, President, Albany State College, Albany, Georgia
I	BLEE, MYRON R., Coordinator of Veterans Affairs, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois	V	BROWN, MRS. M. I., Teacher, Albany State College, Albany, Georgia
C	BLUFORD, F. D., President, Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina, Greensboro, North Carolina	L	BROWNELL, S. M., President, New Haven State Teachers College, Professor of Educational Administration, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
S	BRYAN, WILHELMUS B., Dean, Macalester College, St. Paul, Minnesota	Q	CHEEK, W. V., Head of Commercial Department, Southwest Missouri State College, Springfield, Missouri
D	BRYANT, RALPH R., Registrar, David Lipscomb College, Nashville, Tennessee	Q	CHURCH, E. E., President, Potomac State School, Keyser, West Virginia
T	BUCKNER, E. C., Acting Dean, Central College, Fayette, Missouri	K	CLARKE, FRANCIS P., Professor and Chairman of the Curriculum Committee of the College Faculty, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia
N	BUECHEL, J. F., MARVIN, President, Everett Junior College, Everett, Washington	I	CODER, WILLIAM D., Director of Veterans Service, State University of Iowa, Iowa City
F	BUNN, JOHN W., Registrar, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio	D	COFFMAN, H. C., President, George Williams College, Chicago, Illinois
K	BUNNELL, JEAN, Special Representative, University of Alaska College, Alaska—1009 East 57th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois	I	COILE, SAM H., Director, Registration and Research Service for Vocational Rehabilitation and Education, Veterans Administration, Washington, D. C.
K	BURKHOLDER, C. K., Professor of Economics and Sociology, Dean of Men, Midland College, Fremont, Nebraska	I	COLBERT, J. P., Director, Consultation Board for Veterans and Ex-War Workers, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska
N	BURROUGHS, K. L., Vice President, The Aeronautical University, Inc., Chicago, Illinois	P	COLLETT, A. R., Head, Chemistry Department, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia
N	BUSSEY, C. C., Director, Dayton YMCA College, Dayton, Ohio	I	COLLIER, KENNETH M., Veterans Counselor, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana
M	CALLAHAN, B., St. Xavier College for Women, Chicago, Illinois	C	COLLINS, REVEREND CHARLES L., S.M., Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, University of Dayton, Dayton 9, Ohio
	CARMICHAEL, O. C., President, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York	I	COLLINS, EVAN R., Dean, College of Education, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio
N	CARSON, J. O., Assistant Director and Registrar, Meridian Municipal Junior College, Meridian, Mississippi	R	COLLINS, MARGARET LOUISE, Division of Art and Home Economics, Adrian College, Adrian, Michigan
L	CAYLEY, CHARLES E., Professor of Political Science, State Teachers College, Jacksonville, Alabama	D	COLLINS, REVEREND W. J., Chairman, Committee on Educational Policy, St. Ambrose College, Davenport, Iowa
M	CHAPMAN, MRS. THEODORE S., Chairman of Education, General Federation of Women's Clubs, Jerseyville, Illinois		
F	CHATTERS, R. M., Chairman, Department of Biology, Morningside College, Sioux City, Iowa		

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
I	COMBES, A. L., Director, Education and Training Service for Vocational Rehabilitation and Education, Veterans Administration, Washington, D. C.	H	CROWE, STANLEY E., Dean of Students, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan
B	COOK, RAYMOND M., Dean, Chicago Teachers College, Chicago, Illinois	T	CUMINGS, EDGAR C., President, Canterbury College, Danville, Indiana
I	COOPERMAN, RICHARD, Member, National Committee on Education, American Veterans Committee, 212 East University Avenue, Champaign, Illinois	G	CURRY, EDWARD M., Administrative Assistant, Evanston Community College, Evanston, Illinois
V	COPE, NEIL B., Director, Public Relations, Harding College, Searcy, Arkansas	S	CUTHBERT, KENNETH N., Director, Graduate Division, Music School, Illinois Wesleyan University, Bloomington, Illinois
G	CORNEHISEN, JOHN J., JR., Dean of Men and Associate Professor of Psychology, San Francisco State College, San Francisco 2, California	C	DAGGETT, STUART, Professor of Transportation, University of California, Berkeley, California
U	CORRIGAN, REVEREND A. B., S.J., Dean of Studies, Seattle College, Seattle, Washington.	T	DALLINGER, CARL A., Dean of the College, University of Dubuque, Dubuque, Iowa
G	COUNSELBAUM, MRS. A. B., representative of B'Nai B'Rith, 100 North LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois	R	DARLING, CHESTER A., Acting President, Allegheny College, Meadville, Pennsylvania
C	COWDEN, T. K., Director of Research, American Farm Bureau Federation, 58 East Washington Street, Chicago 2, Illinois	V	DAVIES, W. R., President, State Teachers College, Eau Claire, Wisconsin
R	COWLEY, W. H., Professor of Higher Education, Stanford University, Stanford University, California	B	DAVIS, HARVEY H., Vice President, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
F	CRABAUGH, ALFRED J., Vice President, Arkansas Polytechnic College, Russellville, Arkansas	G	DAVIS, J. H., Acting President, Clarkson College of Technology, Potsdam, New York
Q	CRANDALL, REVEREND A. W., S.J., Dean, School of Arts and Sciences, Loyola University, New Orleans, Louisiana	J	DAVIS, W. A., President, Vincennes University Junior College, Vincennes, Indiana
V	CRAWFORD, ROBERT T., Dean, Glenville State College, Glenville, West Virginia	P	DAWSON, EARL E., Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, Lincoln University, Jefferson City, Missouri
T	CROCKET, DORIS L., Dean, Russell Sage College, Troy, New York	G	DEAKINS, C. E., Director of Student Services, Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago, Illinois
I	CROSSMAN, RAYMOND F., Registrar, New York State College of Forestry, Syracuse, New York	P	DEARBORN, DONALD C., Dean, Catawba College, Salisbury, North Carolina
		Q	DELONG, O. A., Dean of Education, State Teachers College, Minot, North Dakota
		V	DERRYBERRY, EVERETT, President, Tennessee Polytechnic Institute, Cookeville, Tennessee

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
T	DILLON, WALTER E., President, Ambassador College, Pasadena, California	S	EDENS, W. J., President, Arkansas State College, State College, Arkansas
F	DISERT, MARGARET C., Dean, Wilson College, Chambersburg, Pennsylvania	O	EDWARDS, REVEREND J. J. Dean, College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, DePaul University, Chicago, Illinois
K	DOLAN, ELEANOR F., Dean, Flora Stone Mather College, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.	V	ELAM, STANLEY, Director of Public Relations, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, Charleston, Illinois
	DOLLARD, REVEREND S. E., Dean of the Graduate School, Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois	Q	ELDER, ALPHONSO, President, North Carolina College, Durham, North Carolina
H	DOOLEY, RAYMOND, Director of Personnel, Illinois Wesleyan University, Bloomington, Illinois	J	ELDRETT, W. C., Dean, Chicago College of Osteopathy, Chicago, Illinois
Staff	DOREY, MRS. FRANK D., Department of Higher Education, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.	L	ELLIOTT, E. ARTHUR, Dean of Education, Salem College, Salem, West Virginia
T	DRANE, REVEREND JOSEPH K., S.J., Dean, Saint Joseph's College, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	R	ELLIS, CALVERT N., President, Juniata College, Huntingdon, Pennsylvania
R	DRUMMOND, REVEREND E. J., Dean of the Graduate School, Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin	V	ENCHES, EVELYN LESLIE, Pasadena City College, Pasadena, California
K	DUGDALE, C. E., Dean, School of Arts and Sciences, Northwestern State College, Natchitoches, Louisiana		ETTINGER, CLAYTON J., President, Great Lakes College, Detroit, Michigan
A	DUNCAN, C. I., Treasurer, University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma	U	EVANS, E. B., Dean, Prairie View State College, Prairie View, Texas
E	DYRNESS, E. C., Registrar, Wheaton College, Wheaton, Illinois	A	EWERZ, R. R., Director, Division of Higher Education, State Department of Education, Baton Rouge, Louisiana
J	EAVES, ROBERT W., Executive Secretary, National Commission on Safety Education, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.	Q	FAIRCHILD, R. W., President, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois
R	ECKERT, RUTH E., Professor of Higher Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minnesota	K	FARMER, CURREN A., Coordinator of General Education, State Teachers College, Troy, Alabama
T	EDEL, WILLIAM W., President, Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pennsylvania	I	FAUSS, DONALD, Head, Junior College, Engineering Instruction Staff, North Dakota State School of Science, Wahpeton, North Dakota

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
F	FELLOWS, J. E., Dean of Admissions and Records, The University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma	H	GARDNER, DONFRED H., Dean, of Students, University of Akron, Akron, Ohio
P	FELSTED, MRS. LEONA WISE, Dean of Women, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio	V	GARDNER, MARY, Registrar, Latin American Institute, Chicago, Illinois
Q	FERRELL, HARRISON, Dean, West Virginia State College, Institute, West Virginia	H	GARRISON, KARL C., Dean of Instruction, State Teachers College, Frostburg, Maryland
N	FERTSCH, ALBERT, Dean and Administrative Director, Gary College, Gary, Indiana	J	GARRISON, LLOYD A., Director, Summer Quarter, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado
O	FEWKES, JOHN, President, Chicago Teachers Union; representative, American Federation of Labor, 309 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Illinois	D	GEIGER, C. H., President, North Central College, Naperville, Illinois
O	FISHER, JOHN A., Dean of Students, Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa	P	GIBSON, DANIEL, Dean, Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pennsylvania
O	FLETCHER, LEONARD J., Director of Training and Community Relations, Caterpillar Tractor Company, Peoria, Illinois; representative, U. S. Chamber of Commerce, Washington, D. C.	S	GIBSON, JOSEPH E., President, Northwestern State College of Louisiana, Natchitoches, Louisiana
R	FLOWERS, JOHN G., President, Southwest Texas State College, San Marcos, Texas	G	GILBERT, A. R., Dean, Grace-land College, Lamoni, Iowa
A	FRANKLIN, J. A., Treasurer, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana	M	GILKEY, L. M., Assistant Professor of English, Aurora College, Aurora, Illinois
M	FRIESNER, RAY C., Dean, Liberal Arts, Butler University, Indianapolis, Indiana	Sec. Chm.	GODOLPHIN, FRANCIS R. B., Dean of the College, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey
H	FROE, OTIS D., Dean of Students, Wilberforce State College, Wilberforce, Ohio	U	GOETSCH, WALTER R., Director of Student Affairs and Associate Professor of Higher Education, State University of Iowa, Iowa City
J	FRYLUND, VERNE C., President, The Stout Institute, Menomonie, Wisconsin	P	GORE, GEORGE W., JR., Dean, Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial College, Nashville, Tennessee
P	FURLONG, REVEREND WILLIAM F., Vice President, Seton Hall College, South Orange, New Jersey	Staff	GOULD, NATALIE, Administrative Assistant, Department of Higher Education, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.
C	GAFFNEY, MRS. MATTHEW, 525 Ash Street, Winnetka, Illinois; representative, National League of Women Voters	F	GOVE, FLOYD S., Head, Department of Education, Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio
U	GALVARRO, MRS. PAULINE A., Dean of Students, National College of Education, Evanston, Illinois	R	GRAHAM, EDWARD KIDDER, Assistant Dean of Faculties, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
Q	GREENE, JAY M., Instructor in Commerce, State Teachers College, Whitewater, Wisconsin	P	HARRINGTON, M. T., Dean of School of Arts and Sciences, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Station, Texas
B	GRIFFITH, COLEMAN R., Provost, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois	L	HARRIS, NELSON H., Director of Teacher Training, Shaw University, Raleigh, North Carolina
L	GRIGGS, JAMES H., Dean of Instruction, National College of Education, Evanston, Illinois	V	HART, R. W., Placement Director, State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas
P	GRIMES, J. O., Dean, Arizona State College, Tempe, Arizona	A	HARVEY, RAY F., Assistant to the Provost, New York University, Washington Square, New York 3, New York
Q	GRUBB, CHARLES E., Business Administrator, University of Delaware, Newark, Delaware	O	HARVILL, HALBERT, President, Austin Peay State College, Clarksville, Tennessee
L	GUTZLER, GRACE, Instructor in Education, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan	D	HAUPERT, RAYMOND, President, Moravian College, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania
P	HAATVEDT, R. A., Registrar, Luther College, Decorah, Iowa	H	HAWKES, MRS. HERBERT E., Dean of Students, Mills College, Oakland, California
	HAGER, WALTER E., President, Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D. C.	F	HAWKINS, JULIA LEE, Dean of Students, Oklahoma College for Women, Chickasha, Oklahoma
V	HAHN, REVEREND OTTO G., Dean of the College, Chicago Evangelistic Institute, 1754 Washington Boulevard, Chicago, Illinois	I	HAYES, JAMES L., Professor, St. Bonaventure College, St. Bonaventure, New York
V	HALL, MRS. GERTRUDE M., Director of Public Relations, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois	B	HAZLETON, H. A., Business Manager of the Chicago Professional Colleges, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois
J	HAMILTON, R. R., Dean, College of Law, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming	G	HEIN, FRED V., Bureau of Health Education, American Medical Association, 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago 10, Illinois
K	HAMILTON, THOMAS H., Vice President and Professor of Social Studies, Pennsylvania College for Women, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	P	HEISLER, FLORENCE, Head, Psychological Clinic and Member of Faculty Committee on Improvement of Instruction, Eastern Washington College of Education, Cheney, Washington
T	HAND, GEORGE H., President, Fairmont State College, Fairmont, West Virginia	K	HELLER, HOBART F., Dean of College, Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Illinois
O	HANSON, ERNEST E., Dean of Men and Director of Extension, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois	V	HEMRY, J. SCOTT, Director of Admissions, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri
I	HARBRECHT, PAUL P., Director of Student Counsel and Veterans Bureau, University of Detroit, Detroit, Michigan	U	HENDERSON, THOMAS H., Dean, Virginia Union University, Richmond, Virginia
V	HARLESS, W. H., President, Gila Junior College, Thatcher, Arizona		

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
T	HERNDEL, REVEREND COSMAS, O. F. M., Department of Education, Quincy College, Quincy, Illinois	O	HORN, FRANCIS H., Dean, McCoy College, Director of Summer Session, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland
Q	HERRON, LOWELL W., Assistant to the President, Clarkson School of Technology, Potsdam, New York	S	HORSCH, M. J., President, West Virginia Institute of Technology, Montgomery, West Virginia
P	HERTZLER, SILAS, Director of Teacher Training, Goshen College, Goshen, Indiana	S	HOSP, MISS HELEN M., Higher Education Associate, American Association of University Women, Washington, D. C.
U	HIGGINS, REVEREND JOHN J., S.J., Dean, Rockhurst College, Kansas City, Missouri	I	HOSTETLER, C. E., Director, Vocational Education and Rehabilitation, Veterans Administration, Chicago, Illinois
F	HILBUN, BEN, REGISTRAR, Mississippi State College, State College, Mississippi	Q	HUGHES, REES H., President, State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas
E	HILL, CARROLL L., President, Milton College, Milton, Wisconsin	B	HUMPHREY, G. D., President, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming
K	HILL, SELMA, Department of Education, University of Dubuque, Dubuque, Iowa	Sec. Chm.	HUNGATE, T. L., Controller, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York
H	HIX, C. E., Jr., Professor of Philosophy and Religion, Central College, Fayette, Missouri	T	IRVINE, W. BAY, Dean, Marietta College, Marietta, Ohio
E	HOCKEMA, F. C., Vice President and Executive Dean, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana	K	JACKSON, REID E., Director, Division of Arts and Sciences, College of Education and Industrial Arts, Wilberforce, Ohio
D	HOEHL, ARTHUR L., Business Manager, Sioux Falls College, Sioux Falls, South Dakota	F	JACOBS, ALBERT C., Provost, Columbia University, New York 27, New York
C	HOLEMAN, O. B., Instructor, Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock, Arkansas	L	JACOBSEN, E. A., Dean, School of Education, Utah State Agricultural College, Logan, Utah
S	HOLLIS, ERNEST V., Principal Specialist in Higher Education, United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C.	G	JACOBSEN, E. W., President, Los Angeles City College, Los Angeles, California
V	HOLMES, GEORGE H., Director of the Bureau of Publications, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa	N	JOHNSON, B. LAMAR, Dean of Instruction, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri
U	HOLMES, LESLIE A., Administrative Assistant to the President, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois	T	JOHNSON, ERNEST A., President, Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Illinois
M	HOPKINS, E. H., Vice President, Washington State College, Pullman, Washington	H	JOHNSON, MRS. ERNEST A., Member, National Board, Young Women's Christian Association, Lake Forest, Illinois
D	HOPKINS, HAROLD D., President, Defiance College, Defiance, Ohio	A	JOHNSON, R. K., Business Manager, Bob Jones University, Greenville, South Carolina

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
Staff	JOHNSON, MRS. RALPH A., Department of Higher Education, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.	E	KLINEFELTER, DONALD H., Director of Admissions, Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota
U	JONES, BOISFEUILLET, Dean of Administration, Emory University, Georgia	U	KLOTSCHKE, J. MARTIN, President, State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
S	JONES, J. W., President, Northwest Missouri State Teachers College, Maryville, Missouri	H	KNAPP, A. BLAIR, Dean of Students, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
V	JONES, PAUL, Director, News Bureau, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio	N	KNIGHT, L. COLEMAN, Head, Department of Mathematics, Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio
Sec. Chm.	JORGENSEN, A. N., President, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut	K	KOPPIUS, OTTO T., Professor of Physics, The University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky
R	KAMMER, REVEREND EDWARD J., Dean, College of Commerce, DePaul University, Chicago, Illinois	L	KRAFT, MILTON E., Acting Dean, Earlham College, Earlham, Indiana
I	KASTNER, ELWOOD, Registrar and Supervisor of Admissions, New York University, New York 3, New York	L	KRAMER, J. HOWARD, President, Southern State Teachers College, Springfield, South Dakota
E	KEEFER, DARYLE E., Director of Admissions, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico	E	KRIMMEL, HARRY, Business Manager, Westminster Choir College, Princeton, New Jersey
O	KELLER, J. O., Assistant to the President, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania	V	KROHNE, THEODORE K., Director of Public Relations, Elmhurst College, Elmhurst, Illinois
H	KELLY, MARGARET E., Dean of Women, State Teachers College, Bemidji, Minnesota	I	LANE, REVEREND JOHN J., C.S.C., Assistant Director of Studies, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Indiana
M	KENDALL, JOHN, Integrated General Education in the Arts, Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio	Q	LANGSAM, WALTER C., President, Wagner College, Staten Island, New York
I	KILEY, REVEREND BONAVENTURE, T. O. R., Department of Social Sciences, St. Francis College, Loretto, Pennsylvania	M	LANKARD, FRANK G., Dean, Brothers College, Drew University, Madison, New Jersey
J	KILLE, FRANK R., Dean of the College, Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota	L	LARSEN, ARTHUR H., Assistant Dean, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois
A	KING, H. J., Comptroller, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	R	LEAMER, E. W., Director of Training School, State Teachers College, LaCrosse, Wisconsin
R	KLINCK, ARTHUR, President, Concordia Teachers College, River Forest, Illinois	U	LEMME, MAURICE M., Assistant Dean of Administration, Illinois Wesleyan University, Bloomington, Illinois
		K	LESTER, J. G., Chairman, Curriculum Committee of the College of Arts and Sciences, Emory University, Georgia

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
P	LEYS, WAYNE A. R., Dean of Faculties, Roosevelt College, Chicago, Illinois	Staff	MCDONALD, RALPH, Executive Secretary, Department of Higher Education, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.
I	LIBBY, P. A., Director of Veterans Affairs, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California	G	MCELROY, M. FRANCES, National College of Education, Evanston, Illinois
G	LITTLE, KENNETH, Registrar and Director, Student Personnel Services, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin	R	MCGRATH, EARL J., Dean, College of Liberal Arts, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa
L	LOVINGER, WARREN C., Associate Secretary, The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Oneonta, New York	Q	MCGUIRE, REVEREND CYRIL, O.F.M., Vice President, Siena College, Loudonville, New York
I	LUCKY, L. B., Director, Veterans Education, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana	N	MCKEE, K. S., Dean, Potomac State School of West Virginia University, Keyser, West Virginia
H	MACCONNELL, J. D., Senior Educationist, Training Activity, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Navy Department, Washington, D. C.	H	MCKENNEY, REVEREND JAMES L., O.P., Chairman, Mathematics Department, Providence College, Providence, Rhode Island
S	MACDONALD, M. E., Dean, School of Education, Bradley University, Peoria, Illinois	C	MCKENZIE, C. W., Dean, Westminster College, Fulton, Missouri
H	MACMINN, PAUL, Director of Student Affairs, The University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma	J	MCKBOUGH, REVEREND M. J., Assistant Professor of Education, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.
E	MACPHAIL, WILLIAM, President, MacPhail College of Music, Minneapolis, Minnesota	V	MCKINNEY, ROBERT L., Assistant to the President, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri
V	MACRAE, J. B., Director of Public Relations, Lincoln University, Lincoln University, Pennsylvania	P	MCMILLAN, J. C., President, State Normal and Industrial College, Ellendale, North Dakota
Q	MCCARTER, PETE KYLE, Dean, University of Mississippi, University, Mississippi	Sec. Chm.	MCNUTT, FRANKLIN H., Associate Dean, Graduate School, University of North Carolina, Women's College Division, Greensboro, North Carolina
C	MCCASKILL, JAMES L., Director of Public Relations, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida	Q	MC SWAIN, E. T., Director of Summer Session and Professor of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois
C	MCCONNELL, ROBERT E., President, Central Washington College of Education, Ellensburg, Washington	F	MACAULAY, J. M., Director of Public Relations, Cornell College, Mt. Vernon, Iowa
	MCCUE, REVEREND E. C., Dean, Liberal Arts College, John Carroll University, Cleveland, Ohio	K	MAHAN, ERNEST, Dean of Instruction, State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas
H	MCDONALD, HOWARD S., President, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah	K	MANHART, GEORGE B., Acting Dean, DePauw University, Greencastle, Indiana

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
P	MANLEY, A. E., Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, North Carolina College, Durham, North Carolina	T	MITCHELL, GUY, Head, Department of Education and Psychology, Mississippi College, Clinton, Mississippi
L	MARCH, CAREY E., Science Department, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pennsylvania	F	MONGOLD, W. C., Dean, Upper Iowa University, Fayette, Iowa
J	MARTIN, REVEREND M. B., S.J., Dean, Creighton University, Omaha, Nebraska	I	MONK, A. H., Director, Training Facilities Services for Vocational Rehabilitation and Education, Veterans Administration, Washington, D. C.
H	MASTERS, H. V., President, Albright College, Reading, Pennsylvania	H	MOOR, HELEN S., Dean of Women, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois
F	MAXAM, C. R., Registrar and Director of Admissions, Butler University, Indianapolis, Indiana	K	MOORE, JOHN F., Director of Summer Session, Connecticut College, New London, Connecticut
F	MAXSON, THERON B., Dean of Men, Whitworth College, Spokane, Washington	I	MOORE, MERLE G., Director of Education, Illinois Veterans Commission, 223 East Monroe Street, Springfield, Illinois
D	MAYNARD, SIDNEY B., Treasurer, University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida	T	MOORE, MERRITT H., Dean of Students, Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois
N	MAYS, ARTHUR B., Head, Department of Industrial Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois	M	MOORE, ROBERT H., Chairman, Division of Social Sciences, Illinois Wesleyan University, Bloomington, Illinois
U	MEDER, ALBERT E., JR., Dean, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey	V	MOORE, W. J., Dean, Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College, Richmond, Kentucky
N	MEDSKER, LELAND, Dean, Wright Junior College, Chicago, Illinois; President, American Association of Junior Colleges	U	MOREY, VICTOR P., President, Nebraska State Teachers College, Wayne, Nebraska
F	MELDRUM, JAMES A., Assistant Dean of Men, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois	P	MORGAN, W. P., President Emeritus, Western Illinois State College, Macomb, Illinois
C	MEREDITH, FLORA MARIE, Dean of Women, Tusculum College, Greenville, Tennessee	B	MORRIS, C. S., District Superintendent and President, San Mateo Junior College, San Mateo, California
O	MESSICK, J. D., President, East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, North Carolina	N	MORSE, H. T., Dean, General College, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minnesota
U	METZEL, GEORGE V., Registrar, University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma	I	MOYER, D. H., Associate Director of Veterans Education, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York
G	MILLER, E. B., Professor of Mathematics, Illinois College, Jacksonville, Illinois	F	MULCAHY, REVEREND STEPHEN A., S.J., Dean, Boston College, Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts
H	MILLER, MRS. VIOLA C., Registrar, Adrian College, Adrian, Michigan		

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
E	MURPHY, MAURICE J., Registrar, Duquesne University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	R	MOYER, RALPH, Dean of the College, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana
U	MURPHY, RAYMOND J., Dean, Suffolk University, Boston, Massachusetts	F	OCKERMAN, ELBERT W., Director of Admissions, Morris Harvey College, Charleston, West Virginia
Q	MYERS, ALONZO F., Chairman, Department of Higher Education, School of Education, New York University, New York, New York	K	O'DONNELL, REVEREND W. E., Dean, College of St. Thomas, St. Paul, Minnesota
S	NAPIER, T. H., Dean, Alabama College, Montevallo, Alabama	N	OLSON, HENRY, President, Buena Vista College, Storm Lake, Iowa
F	NASH, ARTHUR, Dean of the College, Augsburg College, Minneapolis, Minnesota	K	OLT, RUSSELL, Dean, Anderson College, Anderson, Indiana
F	NELSON, ERLAND, President, Carthage College, Carthage, Illinois	P	OPPENHEIMER, J. J., Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky
L	NELSON, M. J., Dean of Faculty, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa	C	ORR, JOHN, Acting President, Westminster College, New Wilmington, Pennsylvania
O	NETTERVILLE, G. L., Business Manager, Southern University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana	Q	OTTUN, ALICE, Dean, Pace Institute, New York, New York
J	NEUMAN, ABRAHAM A., President, Dropsie College, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	J	PALMER, GORDON, President, Eastern Baptist Theological Seminary, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
C	NEWBURN, HARRY K., President, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon	K	PANNABECKER, SAMUEL, Bethany Biblical Seminary, Chicago, Illinois
P	NEWLUN, CHESTER O., President, State Teachers College, Platteville, Wisconsin	Q	PARKINSON, B. L., President, Mississippi State College for Women, Columbus, Mississippi
J	NIEHAUS, FRED R., Professor of Finance, School of Business, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado	F	PARSONS, R. B., Professor of Education, Aurora College, Aurora, Illinois
R	NORDSTRAND, NORMAN, Dean of Academic Administration, St. Olaf College, Northfield, Minnesota	B	PARSONS, RICHARD T., President, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pennsylvania
S	NORRIS, E. B., Dean of Engineering, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Virginia	B	PARTCH, CLARENCE E., Dean of Education, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey
L	NORRIS, ROBERT E., Dean of Instruction, State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin	B	PARTLO, F. L., Dean, Michigan College of Mining and Technology, Houghton, Michigan
U	NORTH, CARROLL W., Comptroller, University of Mississippi, University, Mississippi	J	PAUL, A. G., President, Riverside College, Riverside, California
		J	PEACOCK, MARKHAM, JR., Professor of English, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Virginia

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
I	PETERS, EDWIN F., President, Des Moines Still College of Osteopathy and Surgery, Des Moines, Iowa	L	POWERS, FRANCIS F., Dean, College of Education, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington
P	PETERS, IRVIN L., Dean of Administration, Central Missouri State College, Warrensburg, Missouri	A	PRATT, CHARLES, President, Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, New York
T	PETERS, W. W., President, McPherson College, McPherson, Kansas	U	PRICE, JAMES F., Chancellor, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado
L	PETERSON, E. T., Dean, College of Education, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa	K	PRICE, J. ST. CLAIR, Dean, College of Liberal Arts, Howard University, Washington, D. C.
V	PETRIE, RICHARD, Director of Personnel, Monmouth College, Monmouth, Illinois	N	PROCTOR, MILTON D., President, Westbrook Junior College, Portland, Maine
R	PETRY, LOREN C., Professor of Botany, and Director of Veterans Education, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York	K	PROVINE, ROBERT C., President, Ward-Belmont School, Nashville, Tennessee
O	PFFENNING, HAZEL, Professor of English, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana	R	PUCKETT, E. P., Acting President, Central College, Fayette, Missouri
G	PHILLIPS, MYRON G., Professor of Speech, Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Indiana	U	PUFFER, CLAUDE E., Dean of Administration, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York
T	PIERCE, REVEREND MICHAEL G., S.J., Assistant to the President, College of the Holy Cross, Worcester, Massachusetts	P	PUGSLEY, A. L., Dean of Administration, Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Science, Manhattan, Kansas
E	PIERPONT, WILBUR K., Controller, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan	T	PULLIAS, E. V., Dean of Instruction, George Pepperdine College, Los Angeles, California
I	PLOENGES, E. W., Veterans Officer, The James Millikin University, Decatur, Illinois	S	PYLE, J. F., Dean of the College of Business and Public Administration, and Acting Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland
C	PORTER, A. H., Executive Dean, University of Detroit, Detroit, Michigan	G	QUARLES, BENJAMIN A., Dean of Instruction, Dillard University, New Orleans 19, Louisiana
Q	POLK, FORREST R., President, State Teachers College, Oshkosh, Wisconsin	A	RAYMOND, BRUCE M., Business Manager, Hope College, Holland, Michigan
K	POOLEY, ROBERT C., Chairman, Department of Integrated Studies, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin	O	REALS, WILLIS H., Dean of University College, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri
G	PORTER, C. SCOTT, Dean, Amherst College, Amherst, Massachusetts	Q	RECHARD, O. H., Dean, College of Liberal Arts, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming
E	POTTER, EUGENE M., Bursar, Central College, Fayette, Missouri	L	REICHERT, E. C., Professor of Education, Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Illinois

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
J	REID, KENNETH A., Executive Director, Isaak Walton League of America, Inc., 31 North State Street, Chicago, Illinois	I	ROUSSE, T. A., Veterans Coordinator, and Chairman of Department of Speech, University of Texas, Austin, Texas
L	REINHARDT, EMMA, Head, Department of Education, Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Illinois	N	ROWLEY, E. W., Dean, Joliet Junior College, Joliet, Illinois
J	RENTON, PAUL H., Dean of Instruction, West Virginia Institute of Technology, Montgomery, West Virginia	N	RUSH, J. EDWIN, Dean, Snead Junior College, Boaz, Alabama
E	RHODES, PEYTON N., Vice President, Southwestern at Memphis, Memphis 12, Tennessee	T	RUSH, N. ORWIN, Executive Secretary, Association of College and Reference Libraries, American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11, Illinois
U	RICHARDS, JOHN R., Executive Assistant to the President, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan	S	SANGER, WILLIAM T., President, Medical College of Virginia, Richmond, Virginia
H	RICHARDSON, ORVIN T., Dean of Student Affairs, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana	C	SAYRE, MRS. M. B., Dean, and Chairman, Division of Student Affairs, Arizona State College, Tempe, Arizona
P	RICHTMEYER, C. C., Director of Instruction, Central Michigan College of Education, Mt. Pleasant, Michigan	Q	SCHLEIER, L. M., Head, Department of Education, Western Illinois State College, Macomb, Illinois
J	RIEDEL, ELMER D., Teacher, Evangelical Theological Seminary, Naperville, Illinois	B	SCHULTZ, FRANK G., Dean, Science Division, South Dakota State College of Agricultural and Mechanical Arts, Brookings, South Dakota
O	RIGGLEMAN, LEONARD, President, Morris Harvey College, Charleston, West Virginia		SCHWARTZ, MRS. ELAINE, Department of Higher Education, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.
I	RINGEL, HARVEY, Assistant Dean, Chicago Musical College, Chicago, Illinois	S	SCOTT, CHARLES E., President, State Teachers College, Dickinson, North Dakota
M	RITTER, DECKARD, Head Librarian and Teacher, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania	A	SCRIBNER, ALBERT F., Registrar and Business Manager, Valparaiso University, Valparaiso, Indiana
M	ROBERTS, L. E., Dean of Administration, West Georgia College, Carrollton, Georgia	M	SCROGGS, SCHILLER, Dean, School of Art and Sciences, Oklahoma A & M College, Stillwater, Oklahoma
D	ROBERTS, WALTER N., President, The Bonebrake Theological Seminary, Harvard Boulevard and Catalpa Drive, Dayton 6, Ohio	R	SEAMANS, HERBERT L., Director, National Commission on Educational Organization, National Conference of Christians and Jews, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York, New York
G	ROBIN, ANNA, National Conference of Christians and Jews, Chicago, Illinois	E	SHIDLE, CHARLES A., Associate Dean of Students, Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania
A	ROSS, WILLIAM R., President, Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colorado		

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
P	SHIDLIN, JOSEPH, Dean, Graduate School, Alfred University, Alfred, New York	M	SISTER M. BERTHA, O.P., Registrar, Siena Heights College, Adrian, Michigan
Q	SELKE, GEORGE A., Chancellor, University of Montana, Helena, Montana	T	SISTER M. JOAN, Professor of Chemistry, College of St. Francis, Joliet, Illinois
K	SELLEN, ARTHUR G., Dean, Washburn University, Topeka, Kansas	M	SISTER M. ROSE AGNES, O.S.F., Instructor, Religion and Philosophy, College of St. Francis, Joliet, Illinois
G	SEVERIN, REVEREND F. T., S.J., Assistant Dean, St. Louis University, St. Louis, Missouri	H	SISTER MARIE STEPHEN, Assistant Dean, Rosary College, River Forest, Illinois
I	SEVRINSON, C. A., Dean and Assistant to the President, North Dakota Agricultural College, State College, North Dakota	Q	SISTER MARY ANSELM, Treasurer, St. Mary College, Xavier, Kansas
O	SEWELL, COLONEL WALTER E., Chief, Army Education Branch Information and Education Division, War Department Special Staff, Washington, D. C.	N	SISTER RAYMONDA, Teacher, Nazareth College, Rochester, New York
D	SHARER, D. M., Vice President and Comptroller, DePaul University, Chicago, Illinois	N	SISTER ROSE ANGELA, Registrar, Nazareth College, Rochester, New York
J	SHIRLEY, HARDY L., Assistant Dean, New York State College of Forestry, Syracuse, New York	V	SISTER ROSE DOMINIC, Dean, St. Mary College, Xavier, Kansas
M	SHIRLEY, J. CLIFFORD, Dean, College of Arts, Phillips University, Enid, Oklahoma	G	SMALL, GEORGE D., Dean of Admissions, and Coordinator for Veterans, University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma
H	SHUMWAY, WALDO, Dean, Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, New Jersey	U	SMITH, F. C., Dean, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee
P	SHUTT, CHARLES N., director of Guidance, Berea College, Berea, Kentucky	I	SMITH, J. M., President, Memphis State College, Memphis, Tennessee
L	SIEBRECHT, ELMER B., Dean of the College, Gustavus Adolphus College, St. Peter, Minnesota	G	SMITH, MAXWELL A., Dean, University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tennessee
M	SIGNER, M. I., Dean, Colorado School of Mines, Golden, Colorado	C	SMITH, Q. M., President, Middle Tennessee State College, Murfreesboro, Tennessee
C	SIMMONS, H. E., President, University of Akron, Akron, Ohio	G	SOUTHWICK, ARTHUR F., Registrar, and Director of Counseling, The College of Wooster, Wooster, Ohio
G	SISTER M. AURELIA, Dean, Rosary College, River Forest, Illinois	L	SPALDING, WILLARD B., Dean, College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois
D	SISTER M. BEATRICE, O.S.E., Chairman of English Department, College of St. Francis, Joliet, Illinois	S	SPARLING, EDWARD J., President, Roosevelt College, Chicago, Illinois

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
I	SPATHELF, VICTOR F., Dean of Students, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan	K	TENNEY, EDWARD A., Dean, Ripon College, Ripon, Wisconsin
F	STAHLKOPF, E. C., Instructor, Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock, Arkansas	C	THACKREY, RUSSELL L., Executive Secretary, Association of Land Grant Colleges and Universities, Washington, D. C.
K	STANISLAUS, BROTHUR E., F.S.C., LaSalle College, Philadelphia 14, Pennsylvania	H	THEOBALD, JOHN J., Dean of Administration, The City College of the City of New York, New York, New York
M	STARCHER, GEORGE, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio	I	THISTED, M. N., Dean of Men, and Director of Veterans Service Bureau, Western Illinois State College, Macomb, Illinois
D	STEFFENS, HENRY, Treasurer, Hope College, Holland, Michigan	A	THOMAS, OLIN E., Executive Secretary, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan
B	STEINHAEUER, GURNETT, Business Manager, Colorado School of Mines, Golden, Colorado	T	THOMPSON, PAUL LAMONT, President, Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo, Michigan
T	STEPHENS, THEODORE P., President, Aurora College, Aurora, Illinois	C	THOMPSON, RONALD B., Registrar and University Examiner, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
O	STEVENSON, JAMES H., Instructor, Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock, Arkansas	N	THOMPSON, SCOTT, President, Compton College, Compton, California
A	STEWART, VIRGIL H., President, Concord College, Athens, West Virginia	M	THURBER, CLARA M., Dean, Lesley College, Cambridge 38, Massachusetts
Sec. Chm.	STICKLER, W. HUGH, Director of General Education, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida	J	TILBERG, W. E., Dean, Gettysburg College, Gettysburg, Pennsylvania
G	STINE, TOM, Dean, Carroll College, Waukesha, Wisconsin	G	TIMMER, ALBERT H., Director of Admissions, Hope College, Holland, Michigan
G	STOCKARD, ORPHA, Dean, Cortey Junior College, Nevada, Missouri		TISCHLER, HANS, Assistant to Director, Music School, Roosevelt College, Chicago, Illinois
M	STOKER, SPENCER, Director, Department of Education, Philosophy and Psychology, Texas State College for Women, Denton, Texas	I	TORPELMAN, W. C., Director of Veterans Affairs, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado
D	STRICKLER, DALE, Treasurer and Business Manager, Manchester College, North Manchester, Indiana	L	TOLO, HAROLD M., Assistant Director of Secondary Education, Central State Teachers College, Stevens Point, Wisconsin
Q	STRONG, EARL D., Dean, Grinnell College, Grinnell, Iowa	I	TOSTLEBE, M. F., Veterans Counsellor, and Associate Professor of Education, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, South Dakota
J	SUMMERS, R. E., Dean, Office of Admissions and Records, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota		

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
V	TREASTER, W. LOWELL, Director of Public Relations, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan	I	WARD, CARLOS E., Special Assistant for Planning, Advise ment and Guidance Service for Vocational Rehabilitation and Education, Veterans Administration, Washington, D. C.
Q	TRENHOLM, H. COUNCILL, President, State Teachers College, Montgomery, Alabama	E	WATT, REX, Director of Testing Bureau and Professor of Psychology, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California
K	TROWBRIDGE, HOYT, Professor, English Department, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon	E	WAY, HAROLD E., Vice President, Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois
Q	UMBECK, SHARVY G., Dean, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Virginia	P	WEAVER, P. C., Assistant Director, Summer Session, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania
H	UPRICHARD, JANE, Head, Department of Education, Rosemont College, Rosemont, Pennsylvania	U	WEBER, RONALD G., Business Manager, Mount Union College, Alliance, Ohio
G	VANDER BEKE, GEORGE E., Director of Admissions, Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin	R	WHELAN, REVEREND JAMES F., S.J., Professor of Education, Loyola University, New Orleans, Louisiana
T	VON ESCHEN, CLARENCE, Professor of Education, Beloit College, Beloit, Wisconsin	E	WHITE, JOHN F., Dean of Students, Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago, Illinois
J	VOORHESS, MRS. HAZEL L., Director of Education, Pratt Institute, Brooklyn 5, New York	Q	WHITE, WILBUR W., President, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio
V	VOSKUYL, ROGER J., Acting President, Wheaton College, Wheaton, Illinois	L	WHITFIELD, THOMAS C., Professor of Education, David Lipscomb College, Nashville, Tennessee
H	WALKER, EVERETT, Assistant to the Dean of the College, Evansville College, Evansville, Indiana	L	WICHERS, WYNAND, Vice President, Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan
J	WALLER, JUDITH C., Director of Public Service, NBC, Chicago; representative, National Association of Broadcasters	M	WIEDERAENDERS, M., Head, Department of Education, Wartburg College, Waverly, Iowa
H	WALTER, MABLE R., Assistant National Director of College Units, The American National Red Cross, Washington 13, D. C.	M	WIGHTWICK, M. IRENE, Personnel and Placement Officer, College of New Rochelle, New Rochelle, New York
L	WALTHER, HERBERT K., Associate Professor of Education, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado	P	WILCOX, GEORGE M., Dean, Youngstown College, Youngstown, Ohio
P	WANGLER, REVEREND THEODORE J., Dean, Uptown College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, DePaul University, Chicago, Illinois	L	WILKS, WILLIAM T., Associate Professor of Science, Troy State Teachers College, Troy, Alabama

<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Name, Position, Institution, and Address</i>
A	WILLHITE, W. LYLE, Chairman, Department of Economics and Business Administration, Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois	L	WOTRING, CLAYTON, Head, Department of Education; Professor of Education, Cedar Crest College, Allentown, Pennsylvania
O	WILLIAMS, J. D., Chancellor, University of Mississippi, University, Mississippi	V	WRIGHT, JOSEF F., Director of Public Information, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois
L	WILLIAMS, JAMES H., Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, California	S	WRIGHT, WENDELL W., Dean, School of Education; Member, Administrative Commerce, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana
P	WILLIAMS, ROBERT C., President, State Teachers College, Whitewater, Wisconsin	E	Yochum, HAROLD L., President, Capital University, Columbus, Ohio
Staff	WILSON, ROY K., Assistant Director, Office of Press and Radio Relations, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.	T	Yoder, PATON, Dean, Westmont College, Santa Barbara, California
I	WOELLNER, ROBERT C., Associate Professor of Education, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois	E	YOUNG, WILLIAM L., Executive Secretary, American Lutheran Church, 57 E. Main Street, Columbus 15, Ohio
N	WOODS, JOHN E., Director, Veterans Information Service, University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska	M	ZIEGLER, HAROLD J., Social Science Instructor, Blackburn College, Carlinville, Illinois
H	WOODS, L. P., Dean of Men, Northeastern State College, Tahlequah, Oklahoma	N	ZULAUF, ROMEO M., Dean of the Faculty, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois
P	WOOSTER, LYMAN D., President, Fort Hays Kansas State College, Hays, Kansas		

Press and Radio Representatives

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>ASTLEY-COCK, JOHN, <i>Chicago Tribune</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>BAKER, JOHN G., <i>Milwaukee Journal</i>, Milwaukee, Wisconsin</p> <p>BEATON, JEANNE, <i>Chicago Herald-American</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>BEERHEIDT, BERNADINE, <i>Seventeen Magazine</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>BURSON, MARION, Associated Press, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>CHASE, FRANCIS, Director, Rural Editorial Service, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>ECKEL, GEORGE, Chicago Bureau, <i>New York Times</i></p> <p>EVANS, JOHN, <i>Chicago Tribune</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>FLEMING, HELEN, <i>Chicago Daily News</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>GARBER, SHELDON, United Press, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>HABAS, RALPH, <i>Chicago Sun-Times</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>HERMAN, HAROLD W., Managing Editor, <i>College and University Business</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> | <p>HUNT, ROLFE LANIER, Editor, <i>Pbi Delta Kappan</i>, Homewood, Illinois</p> <p>LANDFIELD, SIDNEY, <i>Chicago Sun-Times</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>MACLATCHY, JOSEPHINE H., <i>Journal of Higher Education</i>, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio</p> <p>MANN, JOSEPH, <i>Chicago Daily News</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>MILLER, GRACE, Chicago Bureau, <i>Christian Science Monitor</i></p> <p>OATES, JEANETTE, <i>Chicago Herald-American</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>RICE, ARTHUR H., Managing Editor, <i>The Nation's Schools</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>STEUTEVILLE, MARY, <i>Education Summary</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>THOMPSON, ERA BELL, Associate Editor, <i>Ebony Magazine</i>, Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>THORPE, BUD, National Broadcasting Company, Inc., Chicago, Illinois</p> <p>WALLER, JUDITH C., Director of Public Service, National Broadcasting Company, Inc., Chicago, Illinois</p> |
|---|---|

